



SCIENCE

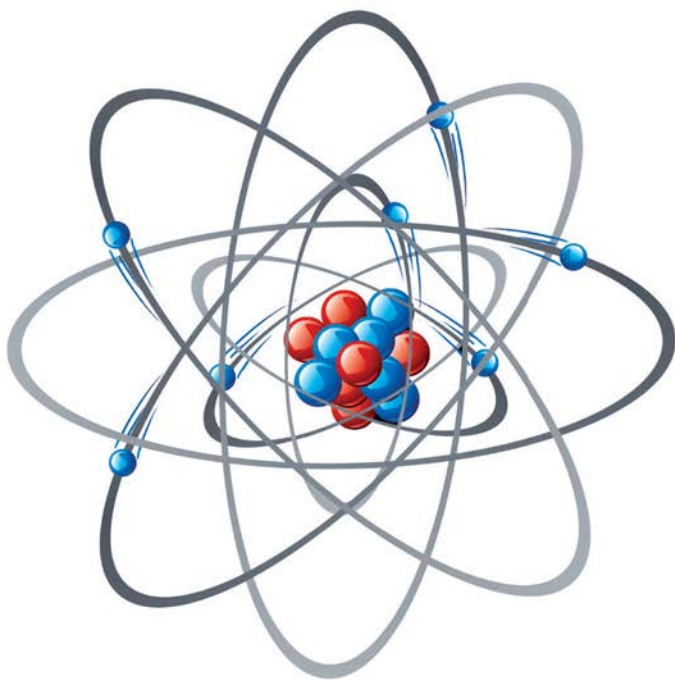


FACTS AT YOUR FINGERTIPS



Pocket Genius

SCIENCE



FACTS AT YOUR FINGERTIPS



Penguin
Random
House

DK DELHI

Project editor Rashmi Rajan
Project art editor Pankaj Bhatia
Editor Surbhi N. Kapoor
DTP designers Jaypal Singh,
Syed Md. Farhan, Dheeraj Singh
Picture researcher Sakshi Saluja

DK LONDON

Senior editor Fleur Star
Senior art editor Rachael Grady
US editor Margaret Parrish
US senior editor Rebecca Warren
Jacket editor Manisha Majithia
Jacket designer Laura Brim
Jacket manager Sophia M. Tampakopoulos Turner
Production editor Rebekah Parsons-King
Production controller Mary Slater
Publisher Andrew Macintyre
Associate publishing director Liz Wheeler
Art director Phil Ormerod
Publishing director Jonathan Metcalf
Consultant Penny Johnson

TALL TREE LTD.

Editors Rob Colson, Joe Fullman, Jon Richards
Designer Ed Simkins

First American Edition, 2013

This edition published in the United States in 2016 by
DK Publishing, 345 Hudson Street, New York, New York 10014

Copyright © 2013, 2016 Dorling Kindersley Limited
DK, a Division of Penguin Random House LLC
16 17 18 19 20 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
001-290739-January/2016

All rights reserved.

Without limiting the rights under the copyright
reserved above, no part of this publication may be
reproduced, stored in or introduced into a retrieval system,
or transmitted, in any form, or by any means (electronic,
mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise), without
the prior written permission of the copyright owner.
Published in Great Britain by Dorling Kindersley Limited.

A catalog record for this book
is available from the Library of Congress.
ISBN: 978-1-4654-4591-9

DK books are available at special discounts when
purchased in bulk for sales promotions, premiums,
fund-raising, or educational use. For details, contact:
DK Publishing Special Markets, 345 Hudson Street,
New York, New York 10014
SpecialSales@dk.com

Printed and bound in China

A WORLD OF IDEAS:
SEE ALL THERE IS TO KNOW
www.dk.com





CONTENTS

- 4 What is science?
- 6 Scientific advances
- 10 Everyday science



14 MATTER AND MATERIALS

- 16 States of matter
- 18 Changing states
- 20 The water cycle
- 22 Properties of matter
- 26 Atoms
- 30 Molecules
- 32 Elements
- 36 Mixtures and compounds
- 38 Reactions and changes
- 44 Acids and bases
- 46 Using materials



48 ENERGY AND FORCES

- 50 What is energy?
- 54 Atom power
- 56 Electricity
- 58 Using electricity
- 62 Magnetism
- 64 Magnets in action
- 66 Electromagnetism
- 68 The EM spectrum
- 72 Light
- 74 Using light
- 76 Radioactivity
- 78 Heat
- 82 Sound
- 84 Forces
- 88 Forces and movement
- 92 Simple machines
- 96 Complex machines
- 98 Computers



100 THE LIVING WORLD

- 102 Types of living thing
- 104 Classifying life
- 106 Microlife
- 108 Fungi
- 110 Plants
- 114 How plants work
- 116 Flowers and seeds
- 118 What is an animal?
- 122 Types of animal
- 124 Animal reproduction
- 126 Food webs
- 128 Cycles
- 130 Ecosystems
- 134 Survival
- 136 Living in water
- 138 Flying
- 140 Evolution
- 142 Human influence
- 144 The periodic table
- 146 Amazing science facts
- 148 Natural history facts
- 150 Glossary
- 152 Index
- 156 Acknowledgments



What is science?

Science is the study of the universe and everything in it—from the tiny atoms that make up all matter to the forces that build stars and planets. Through the study of science, we have been able to figure out how our planet came to exist and how life on Earth developed. We are even able to work out how the universe might come to an end in the far future.

Materials science

Science can be split into three main areas—materials, physical, and life science. Materials science looks at what materials are made of, how they react with each other, how they can be combined to form new materials, and what uses they can be put to. Chemists often conduct research to create useful things rather than simply to learn about the world.

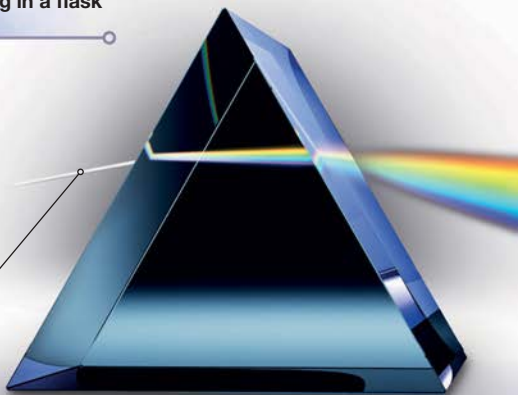
Chemicals reacting in a flask

Physical science

Scientists who study forces, energy, and how they interact try to answer some big questions. How was the universe formed? What are the forces that hold it together? Where does energy come from? What is light made of?

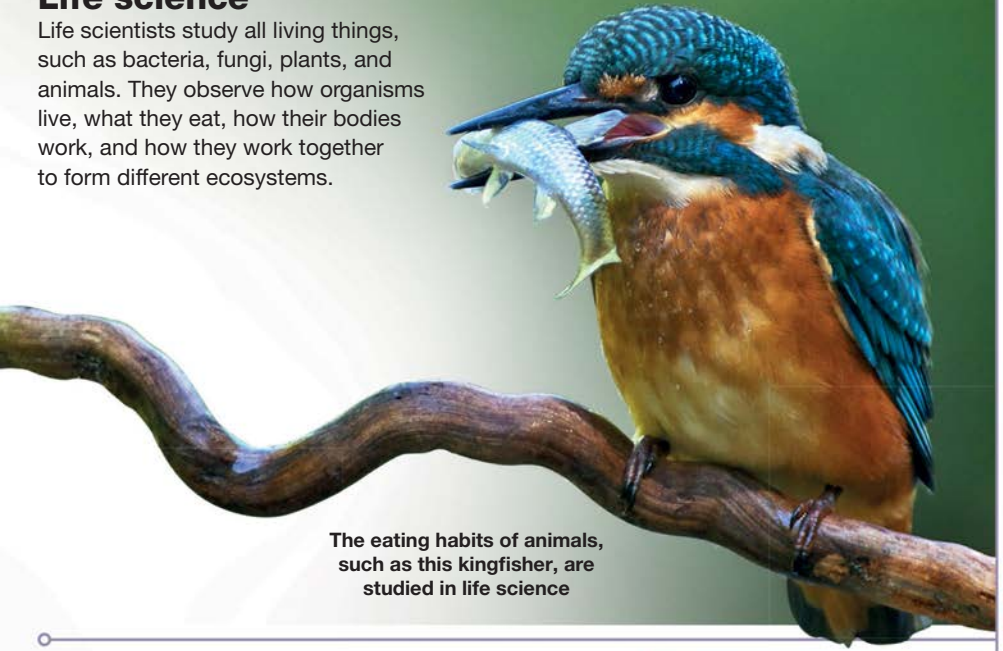
Light is split
by a prism

Beam of
white light



Life science

Life scientists study all living things, such as bacteria, fungi, plants, and animals. They observe how organisms live, what they eat, how their bodies work, and how they work together to form different ecosystems.



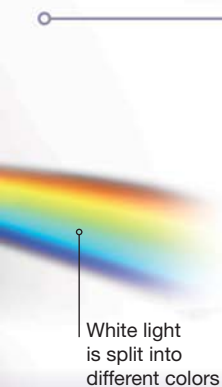
The eating habits of animals, such as this kingfisher, are studied in life science

What is a scientist?

Scientists discover laws that explain the world around us. They do this by making observations and then coming up with predictions, or hypotheses, for how they think things work. They then test these hypotheses in experiments to see if they fit the evidence.



This scientist is developing new forms of wheat to improve farmers' crops



White light is split into different colors

Scientific advances

Some scientific breakthroughs have changed the course of history. Inventions such as the wheel, penicillin, and the World Wide Web have transformed people's lives, while the development of theories on the laws of motion and natural selection have helped build our understanding of the universe.

Inventions and theories

An invention is something that humans have created that did not exist before. But scientists do not just come up with new inventions, they also develop new ways of thinking about how the world works.

Invention of the wheel

Invented in Mesopotamia, the first wheels were used as potters wheels and were later attached to vehicles for transportation.

c.9000 BCE

c.3500 BCE

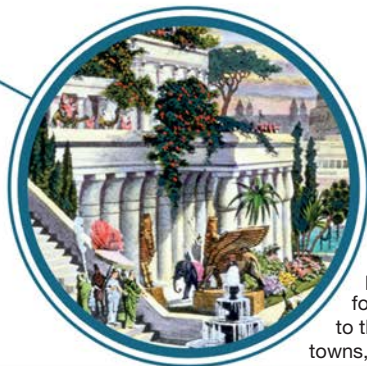
c.1200–1000 BCE

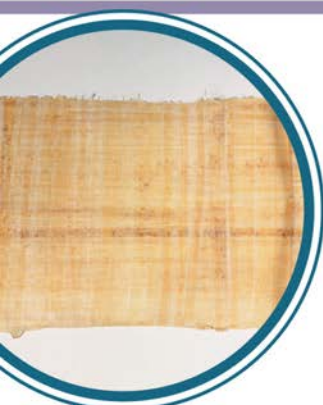
The Iron Age

A new method was discovered to extract iron from iron ore through smelting (heating with carbon). Iron tools were harder and sharper than the bronze and stone tools of previous ages.

Agriculture

The development of farming in Mesopotamia allowed people to settle in permanent communities for the first time. This led to the development of large towns, such as Babylon.



**Invention of paper**

The Chinese produced the first paper from a mixture of tree bark, plant fibers, and rags mixed to a pulp and then squeezed flat.

c.50 BCE

c.800 CE

The Age of Steam

Steam engines could perform much more work than animals.

They were used to power everything from factory machinery to trains and helped kick-start the Industrial Revolution.

**Invention of printing**

Johannes Gutenberg invented a new printing process using movable metal letters that made the mass production of books and newspapers possible.

c.1450

1687

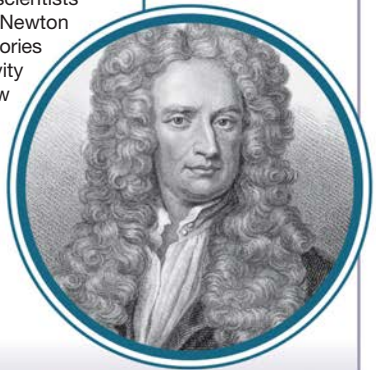
1700–1900

Invention of gunpowder

China was also responsible for gunpowder, an explosive mixture of sulfur, charcoal, and potassium nitrate, which they used in fireworks and firearms.

**The Laws of Motion**

One of the leading scientists of his day, Sir Isaac Newton devised important theories explaining how gravity works and how things move.



**Invention of cars**

The invention of the gasoline-powered automobile by Karl Benz at the end of the 19th century eventually brought the Age of Steam to an end.

1859

1885

Discovery of polonium and radium

The French-Polish physicist Marie Curie discovered the radioactive elements polonium and radium. Her work on radioactivity paved the way for a new understanding of atoms.

**Albert Einstein**

The Theory of Relativity (proposed in 1905 and completed in 1916) put forward by the physicist Albert Einstein fundamentally changed people's understanding of time, space, matter, and energy.

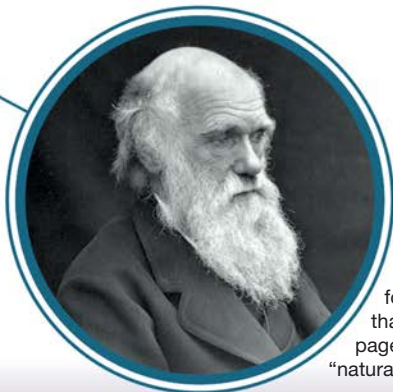
1895

1898

1905–16

X-rays discovered

Wilhelm Röntgen discovered X-rays, which can be used to produce images of bones inside the body. This transformed medicine.

**Natural selection**

In his book *On the Origin of Species*, Charles Darwin put forward the revolutionary theory that species gradually evolve (see page 140) into new forms through “natural selection.”





Penicillium
mold growing
in a Petri dish

Discovery of penicillin

Antibiotics have saved millions of lives. The first antibiotic, penicillin, was discovered by accident by Alexander Fleming, when he noticed a strange mold killing the bacteria in a Petri dish.

1928



Invention of the World Wide Web

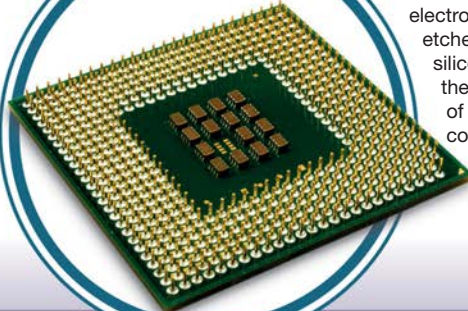
The British computer scientist Tim Berners Lee linked up the world with his invention of the World Wide Web, a global computer communication system that uses the Internet.

1990



Invention of the microchip

The first computers were big and slow. However, Jack Kilby's invention of the microchip (a set of electronic components etched on to a tiny silicon chip) allowed the development of smaller, faster computers.



Everyday science

Science does not just take place in laboratories. It forms part of almost everything we do, whether it is cooking food, playing with plastic toys, speaking to a friend on the telephone, surfing the Internet, or traveling from one place to another.

Play

From plastic toys and computer games to the latest cutting-edge sports equipment, science has nearly always been involved in developing and shaping the materials. Science is also used in the design of the equipment.





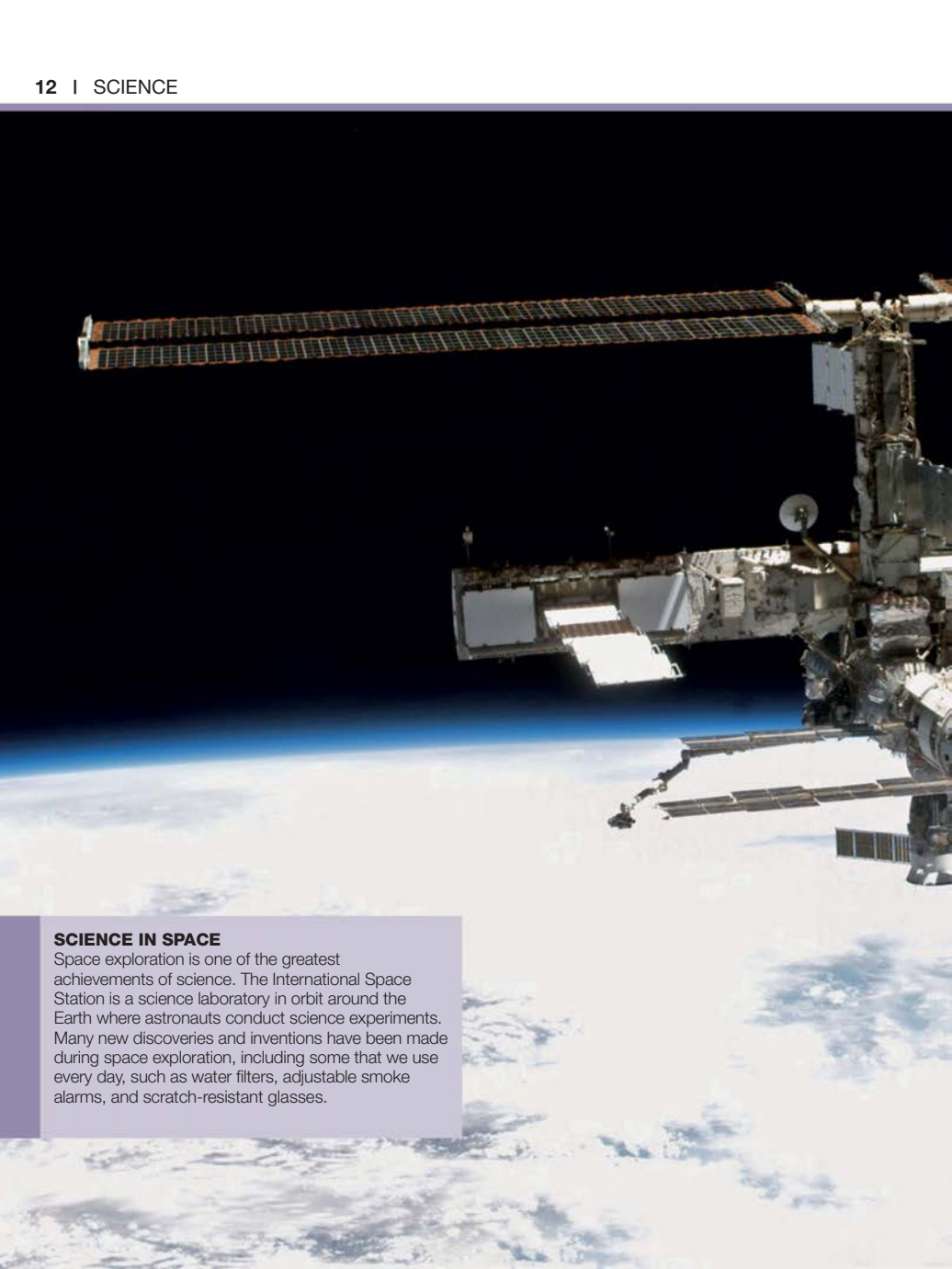
Work

Science is used in a range of jobs, helping to make them easier and more efficient. Machines can lift heavy objects, computers can process information and send messages, while the latest surgical equipment can help save lives.

Rest

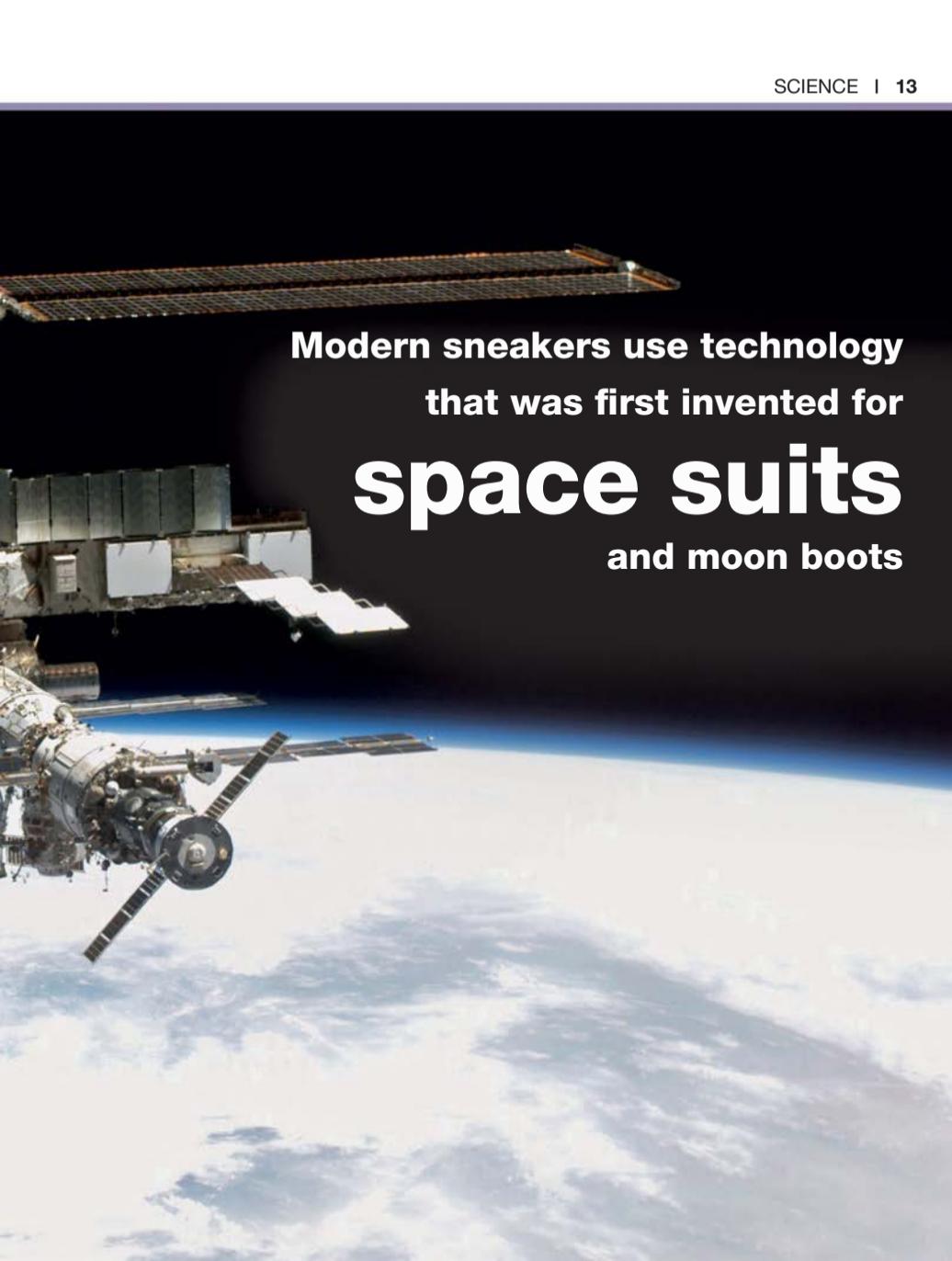
Science even helps us to rest. In our homes, science is all around us. Thermostats control the temperature, ovens turn raw ingredients into tasty meals, while satellites in space beam radio, phone, and TV signals from all over the world into our homes.



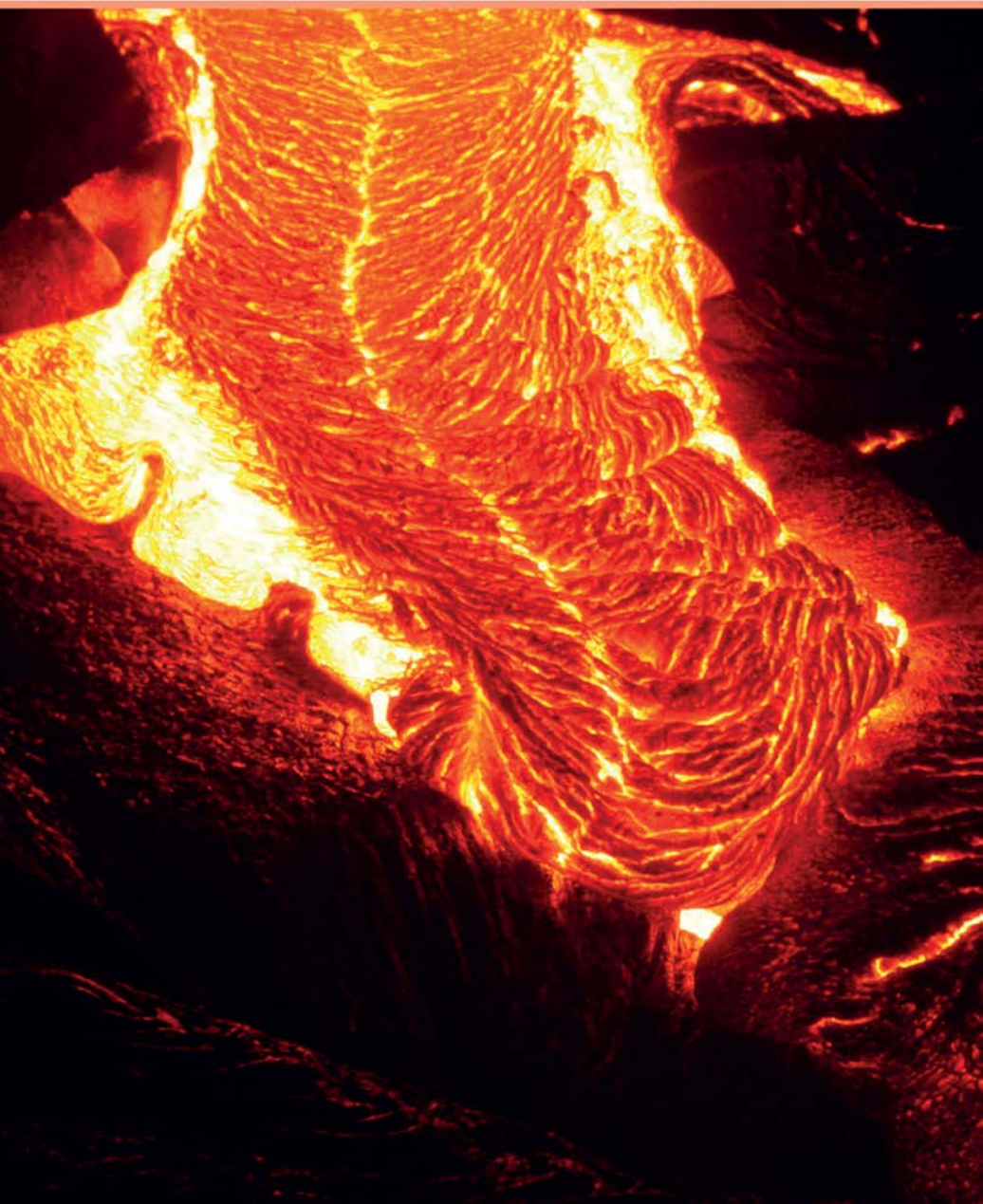


SCIENCE IN SPACE

Space exploration is one of the greatest achievements of science. The International Space Station is a science laboratory in orbit around the Earth where astronauts conduct science experiments. Many new discoveries and inventions have been made during space exploration, including some that we use every day, such as water filters, adjustable smoke alarms, and scratch-resistant glasses.

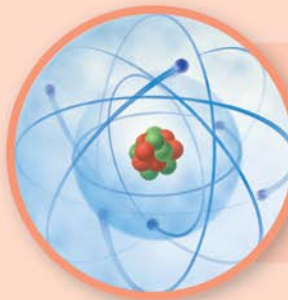


**Modern sneakers use technology
that was first invented for
space suits
and moon boots**



Matter and materials

Everything on Earth is made from different types of matter, which behave in different ways, depending on the conditions. Rock, for example, can form solid mountains, but at high temperatures it melts and flows as lava. Exploring the way matter changes its form under different conditions of heat or pressure reveals how the universe works at its most basic level. Understanding how materials behave in different situations shows how they can—and cannot—be used.



ATOMS

All matter is made up of tiny particles called atoms. At the center of each atom is a nucleus, made up of protons and neutrons, and this is surrounded by a cloud of electrons.

States of matter

Matter is everywhere, but you cannot always see it. There are four main types, or states, of matter—solid, liquid, gas, and plasma. Each state is made up of moving particles, but they look and behave very differently.

Solids

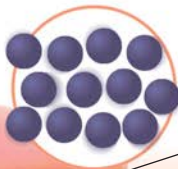
In solids, the particles are packed together so tightly that they vibrate rather than move around. Solids can be hard or soft, huge or tiny, and everything in between, but they always have a fixed shape and volume and occupy a definite space.



Particles are packed together in a solid

Liquids

The particles in a liquid are also close, but they are not held together as strongly as in a solid, so they can move around. This means a liquid has no fixed shape and usually takes on the shape of whatever container it is in. A liquid has a fixed volume, but it varies in thickness, or viscosity, which affects how freely it can flow.

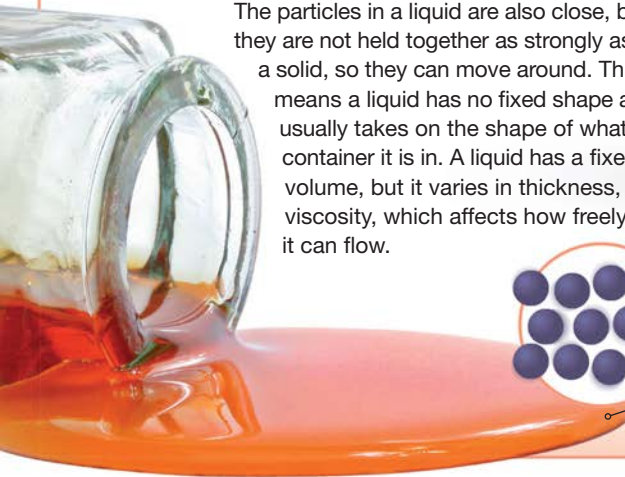


Particles are close in a liquid

Honey has **high viscosity**, which means it flows slowly



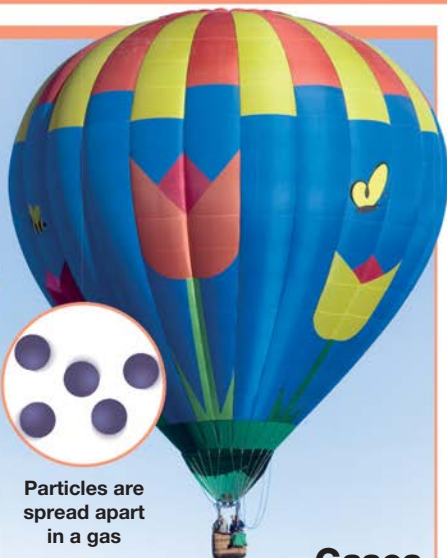
Rocks and minerals are solids





Sulfur crystal embedded in rock

Hot air, an example of a gas, expands to fill these hot-air balloons



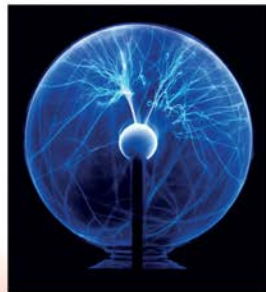
Particles are spread apart in a gas

Gases

The particles in a gas are far apart and can move freely, so gases have no fixed shape or volume. Gases can be compressed (squeezed so the space between the particles decreases) or expanded (the space increases) to fit a container. Most gases are invisible.

Plasma

Plasma is rarely seen on Earth, but it is found throughout the universe. Like a gas, it has no fixed shape or volume. However, it contains electrically charged particles (see pages 56–57) and exists only under certain conditions, such as in places with high temperatures or radiation. Streams of plasma can be seen in this plasma lamp.



Changing states

A substance may not always remain in the same state of matter. It can change state when it is at different temperatures. For example, a solid can become a liquid if it becomes hot enough and a liquid may become a solid if it is cooled enough.

Boiling and evaporation

When water is heated to boiling point, bubbles appear. These bubbles are made because some of the liquid has changed to an invisible gas called water vapor, or steam. Water boils at 212°F (100°C). The water vapor escapes into the air in a process called evaporation. Evaporation can also occur more slowly. For example, wet hair dries because of evaporation.

Heat from
within Earth
causes the
water to
evaporate



Hot thermal spring in New Zealand

Condensation

The opposite of evaporation is condensation and this process occurs when a gas cools and becomes a liquid. When water vapor comes into contact with something cool, it turns back into a liquid. Condensation often forms on windows as the temperature drops overnight.



Freezing

When a liquid becomes cold enough, it will freeze and become a solid. The temperature at which a substance turns into a solid is called its freezing point. Water freezes at 32°F (0°C) and its solid state is called ice. Jet fuel freezes at around -52°F (-47°C).

Melting

When a solid is heated to a high enough temperature, it becomes a liquid, or melts. The increase in temperature causes the particles in the solid to move more freely until eventually they achieve a liquid state. The temperature at which a solid becomes a liquid is known as its melting point. The melting point and freezing point of a substance are the same temperature.

Solid ice pops melt to form a liquid



The water cycle

Earth's water is constantly changing state as it circulates between the sea, the land, and the sky. This process is known as the water cycle. Although water is always moving, the total amount of water in the world always stays exactly the same.

Water and the atmosphere

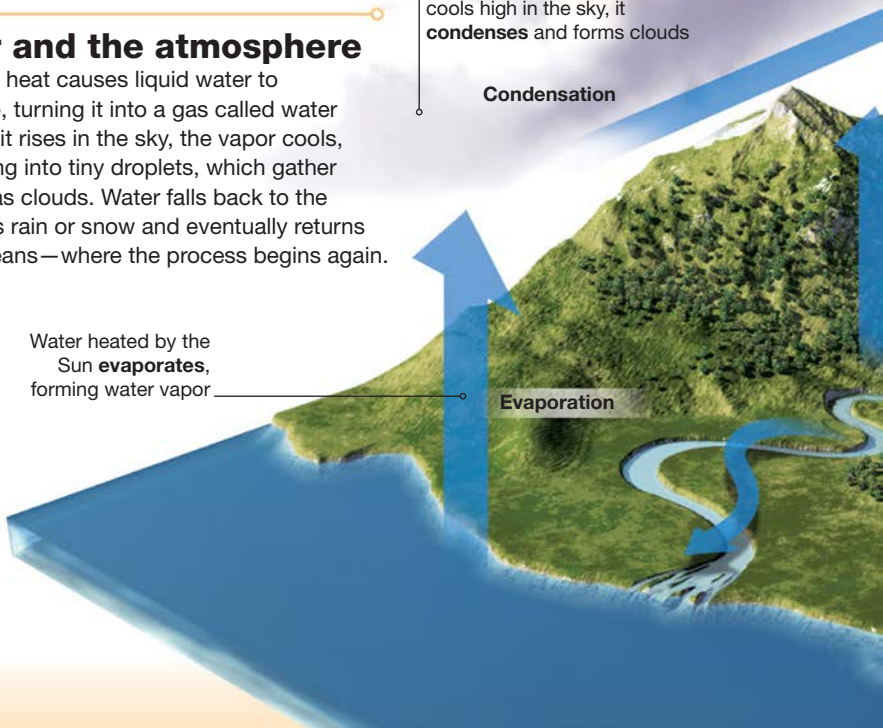
The Sun's heat causes liquid water to evaporate, turning it into a gas called water vapor. As it rises in the sky, the vapor cools, condensing into tiny droplets, which gather together as clouds. Water falls back to the surface as rain or snow and eventually returns to the oceans—where the process begins again.

When water vapor cools high in the sky, it **condenses** and forms clouds

Condensation

Water heated by the Sun **evaporates**, forming water vapor

Evaporation





Properties of matter

Different substances have different properties. They might be hard or soft, flexible or rigid, flammable or not. Testing the properties of a particular substance helps in determining what it can, and cannot, be used for.

Mass and density

The amount of matter within an object is known as its mass. On Earth, the force of gravity (see page 84) pulls on the mass of an object to give it weight. An object's density is how much mass it has for its size. For example, a piece of iron weighs more than a feather of the same size because it is a denser material.



A feather has a low density



An iron bell has a high density



Plasticity

Some materials can be shaped into a different form. This property is known as plasticity. Modeling clay, for example, can be shaped into various objects. Special types of plasticity include malleability, where a material such as metal can be beaten into thin sheets, and ductility, which allows a material to be pulled into a thin wire.

Modeling clay has high plasticity, but the knife is less elastic and breaks easily



1. Talc



2. Gypsum



3. Calcite



4. Fluorite



5. Apatite



6. Feldspar



7. Quartz



8. Topaz



9. Corundum



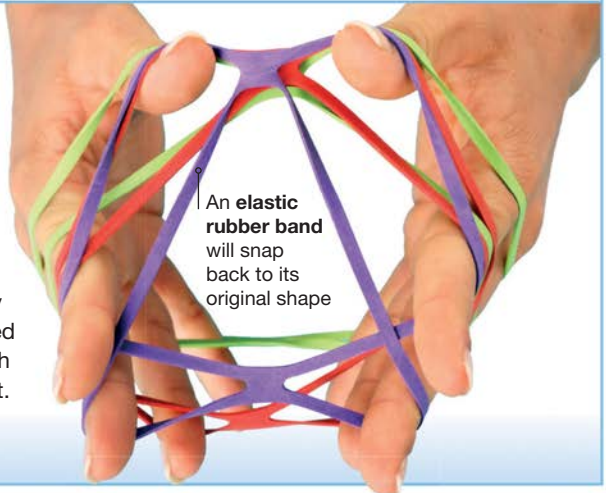
10. Diamond

Hardness

The hardness of minerals is measured using the Mohs scale. Ranging from 1 (soft) to 10 (very hard), the scale measures how well one mineral can resist being scratched and shaped by another. A diamond could scratch any other mineral, but talc can easily be scratched by any mineral, or even a human fingernail.

Elasticity

Some materials are very flexible and have the ability to bend. Some are so flexible that they can bend or stretch in different directions, but still return to their original shape, size, or position. This property is known as elasticity. A rubber band is an elastic object. Many materials cannot be stretched beyond a certain point, which is called the elastic limit.



Flammability

If a material is flammable, it catches fire (ignites) easily and then burns (combusts). Highly flammable materials, such as gasoline, can be dangerous, but also very useful. Flammable materials produce heat as they burn. A material that will not burn is known as nonflammable.



Solubility

If a material can dissolve in a liquid, it is known as soluble. The liquid into which the soluble material dissolves is a solvent. Water is often called the universal solvent because so many materials can dissolve in it. Soluble materials include solids, liquids, and gases.

Potassium permanganate is a solid compound that **dissolves** in water

Stone is **nonflammable** and does not catch fire

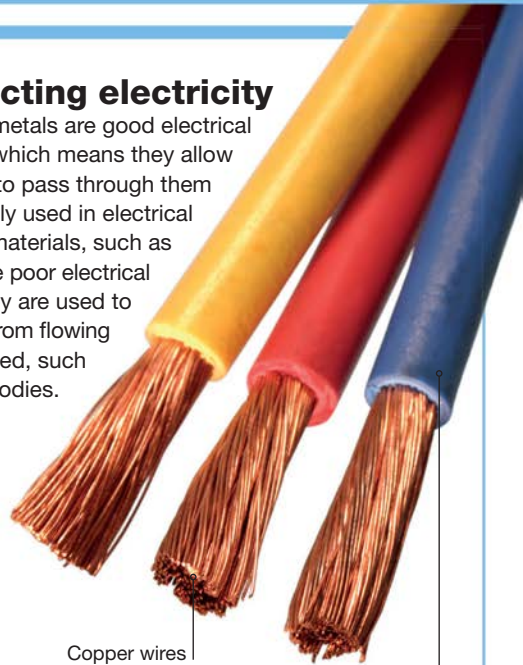


A special nonflammable fabric called CarbonX does not burn even when heated to an incredible 5,500°F (3,000°C).

Wood is a **flammable** material and catches fire easily

Conducting electricity

All metals are good electrical conductors, which means they allow electrical currents to pass through them easily. Copper is widely used in electrical wiring. Insulating materials, such as glass and plastic, are poor electrical conductors. They are used to prevent electricity from flowing where it is not needed, such as through our bodies.



Copper wires

Plastic insulator covers

Conducting heat

Metals conduct heat well and are known as thermal conductors. Other materials, such as glass and plastic, do not conduct heat easily. They are called thermal insulators and they are very useful as they prevent heat from escaping.



A metal pan conducts heat from the burner to the food inside the pan

Atoms

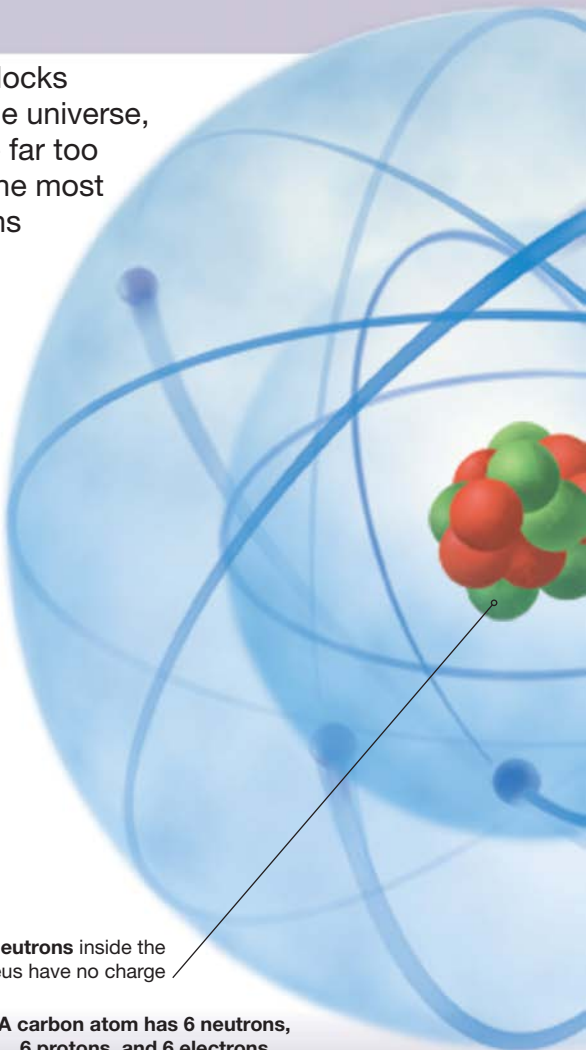
Atoms are the tiny building blocks that make up everything in the universe, including ourselves. They are far too small to be seen, even with the most powerful microscopes. Billions of them could fit on the dot of this “i.” Yet atoms are themselves made up of even tinier subatomic particles called protons, neutrons, and electrons.


Inside an atom

Atoms consist of three types of particle. At the center is a nucleus made up of protons, which have a positive electric charge, and neutrons, which have no charge. This is orbited by some even smaller negatively charged particles called electrons, which spin around the nucleus at great speeds. These particles are so tiny that most of an atom is actually just empty space.

Neutrons inside the nucleus have no charge

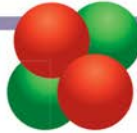
A carbon atom has 6 neutrons, 6 protons, and 6 electrons





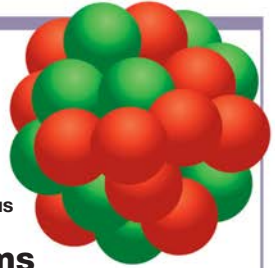
Negatively charged **electrons** move around the nucleus in paths called orbits

Positively charged **protons** lie inside the nucleus



Helium nucleus

Magnesium nucleus



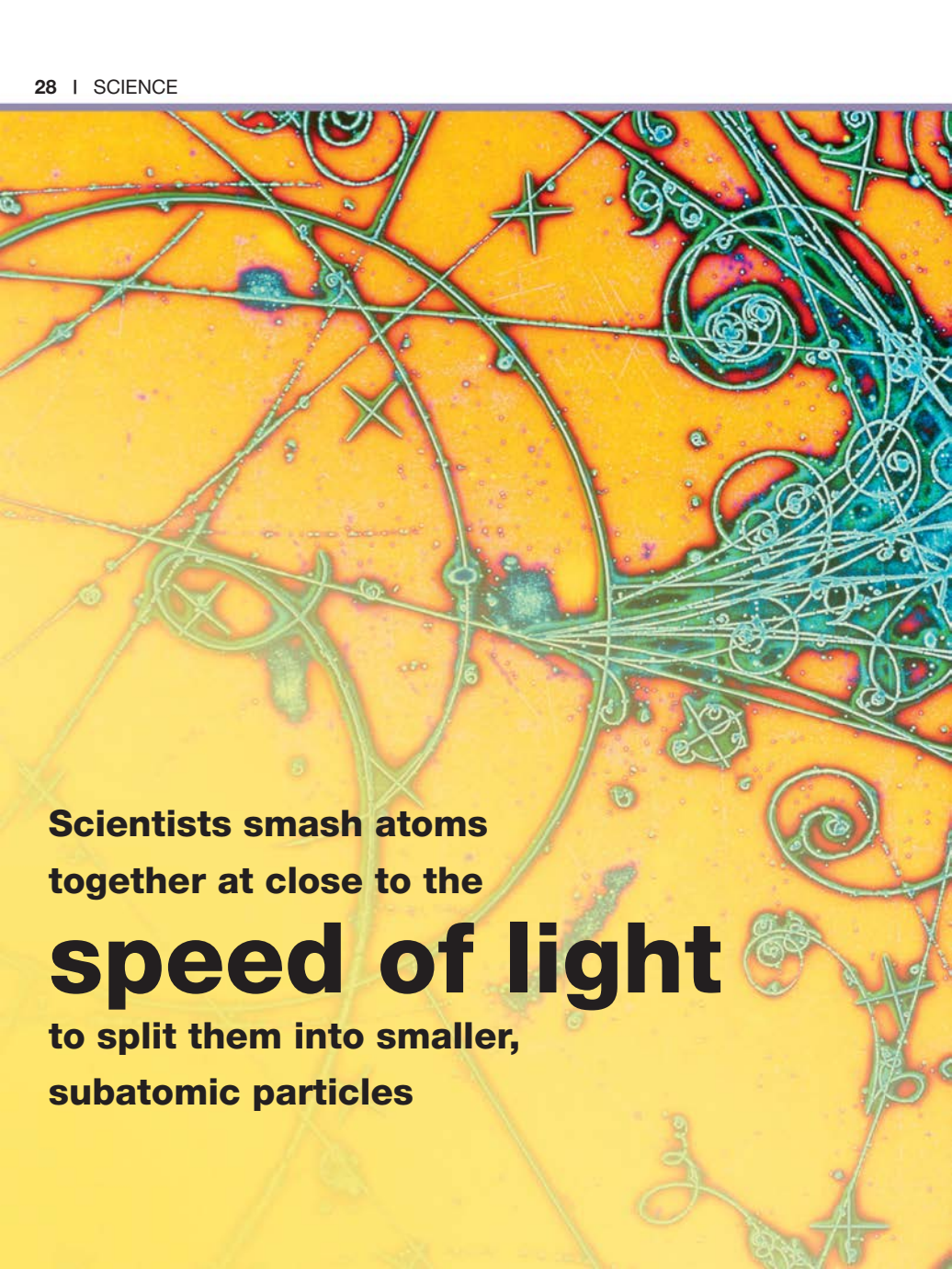
Different atoms

A helium atom has just 2 protons, 2 neutrons, and 2 electrons, while a magnesium atom has 12 of each. Sometimes atoms can lose or gain electrons to become a special type of atom called an ion. When an atom loses electrons, it becomes a positively charged ion. If it gains electrons, it becomes a negatively charged ion.

PARTICLE ACCELERATOR

Scientists can learn more about atoms by smashing subatomic particles into each other at high speeds and then studying the results. They do this using machines called particle accelerators, such as the Large Hadron Collider (below) at CERN in Switzerland.





**Scientists smash atoms
together at close to the
speed of light
to split them into smaller,
subatomic particles**

**PARTICLE TRACKS**

Subatomic particles, such as electrons, are not usually visible. However, inside this special bubble chamber filled with liquid hydrogen, the electrons leave behind tracks as they move, creating intricate spiral patterns.

Molecules

Most atoms do not exist on their own, but bond with other atoms—either ones of their own type or of another element—to form molecules. Atoms join together by sharing their electrons, a process known as chemical bonding.

Simple molecules

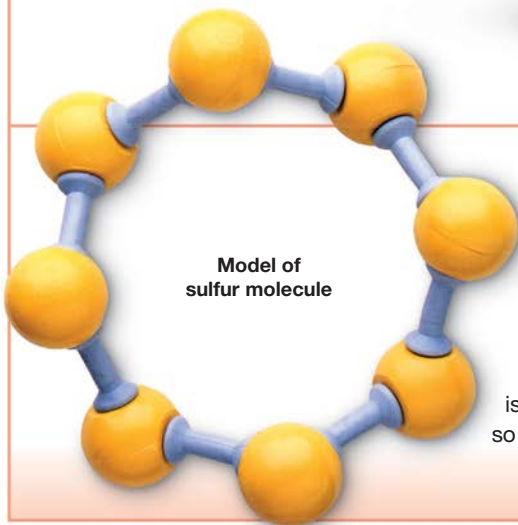
The natural state of oxygen is nearly always as a molecule, not an atom. An oxygen molecule is made up of two oxygen atoms, chemically bonded together. The oxygen in the air consists of molecules, not single atoms.

Oxygen atom



Model of
oxygen molecule

Model of
sulfur molecule



Complex molecules

A sulfur molecule is made up of eight sulfur atoms bonded together in a ring. The structure of a molecule can be shown by a formula. For example, sulfur has the chemical symbol S and is made up of eight atoms, so its chemical formula is S₈.





Diamond

Model of diamond's
atomic structure

Pencil "lead" is made
of graphite

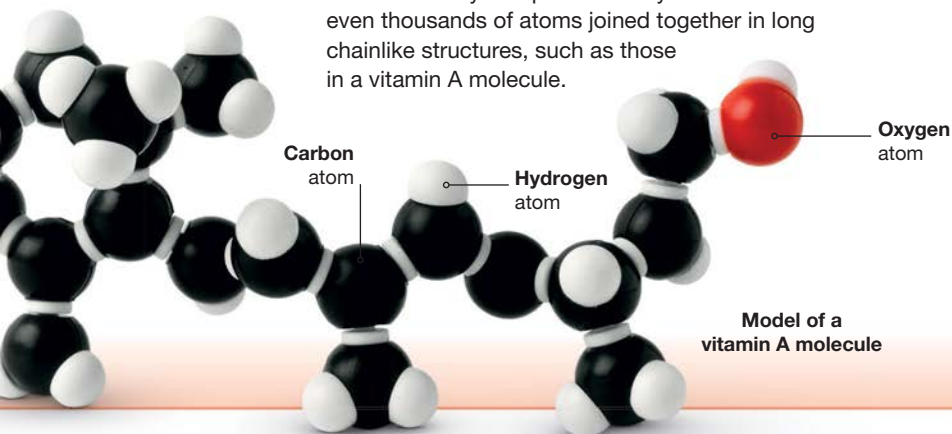
Model of graphite's
atomic structure

Different arrangements

Atoms of some elements can join together in different ways to create different substances. For example, carbon atoms can join together in sheets to form graphite or in a lattice shape to form diamond.

Complex chains

Some molecules are simple, containing just a few atoms. Others are very complex and may have hundreds or even thousands of atoms joined together in long chainlike structures, such as those in a vitamin A molecule.

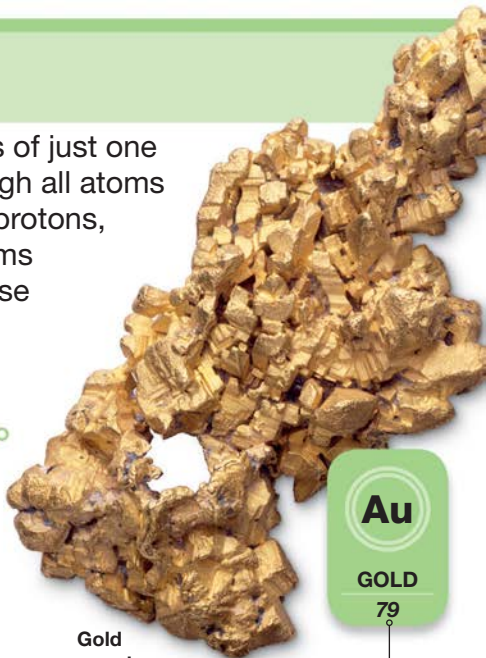
Model of a
vitamin A molecule

Elements

A chemical that is made up of atoms of just one type is known as an element. Although all atoms are made of the same basic parts—protons, neutrons, and electrons—not all atoms are the same. It is the number of these parts that gives the atom—and the element—its properties.

Grouping elements

The number of protons in an atom of an element gives it its atomic number. Scientists arrange elements according to their atomic numbers in a chart known as the periodic table (see pages 144–45). Although each element is unique, many have similar properties. Those that share certain properties are grouped together.



Gold nugget

The atomic number of gold is 79



Alkali metals

The first group of similar elements in the periodic table is known as the alkali metals. These elements, which include sodium and lithium, are soft and react with water, forming alkaline solutions.

Sodium gets hot and melts when it reacts with water, producing hydrogen, which burns

Transition metals

Most of the metals we use in everyday life, such as gold, iron, and copper, are grouped together as transition metals. This group contains metals that can create magnetic fields (see page 63) and are good conductors of heat and electricity.

The mask of the Egyptian pharaoh Tutankhamun is made of gold, a transition metal

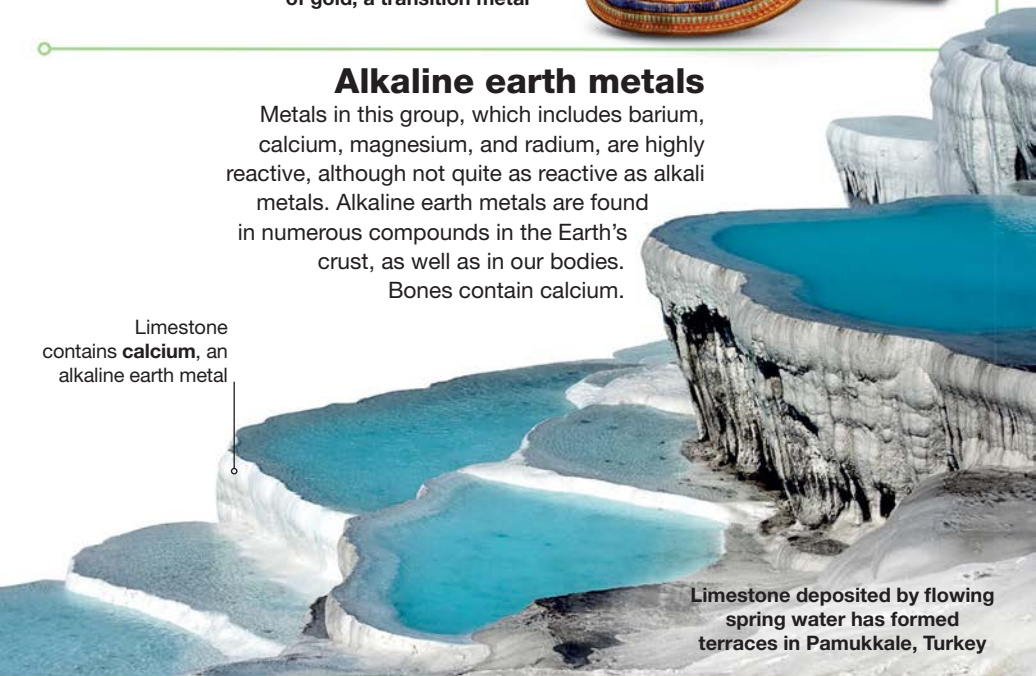


Alkaline earth metals

Metals in this group, which includes barium, calcium, magnesium, and radium, are highly reactive, although not quite as reactive as alkali metals. Alkaline earth metals are found in numerous compounds in the Earth's crust, as well as in our bodies.

Bones contain calcium.

Limestone contains **calcium**, an alkaline earth metal



Limestone deposited by flowing spring water has formed terraces in Pamukkale, Turkey



Noble gases

The six noble gases—helium, neon, argon, krypton, xenon, and radon—are colorless, odorless, and usually do not react with other elements to form compounds. They are, however, used in a variety of applications, including electric lights. Most noble gases glow brightly when electricity is passed through them. Lighter-than-air helium is also used in balloons and to lift airships.

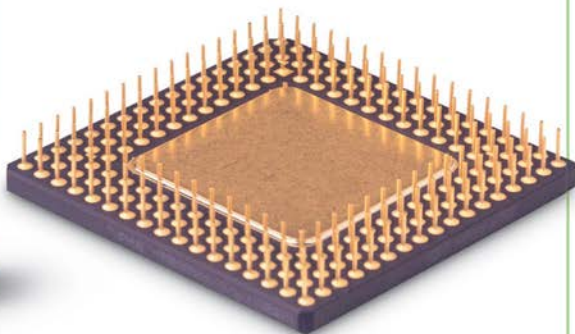
The bright fluorescent colors of neon lights are caused by the glowing of neon and other noble gases



Tin, a poor metal, does not rust, and so it is often used as a coating for cans

Poor and semimetals

Poor metals have lower melting points than most transition metals. They are often used in alloys, such as bronze—a mixture of copper and tin. Semimetals have some metallic and some nonmetallic qualities. For instance, silicon is shiny like a metal, but brittle like a nonmetal.

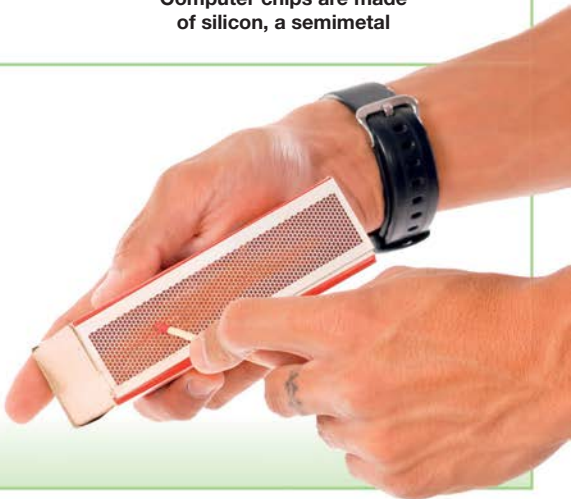


Computer chips are made of silicon, a semimetal

Nonmetals

Nonmetals are so called because they do not share physical or chemical properties with metals. Nonmetals do not conduct heat or electricity well, and the solid forms of most nonmetals are soft and brittle. The atmospheric gases nitrogen and oxygen are nonmetals.

The striking surface of a matchbox is coated with phosphorus, a nonmetal



Mixtures and compounds

Different elements can be combined to create new substances. When atoms and molecules chemically combine to form a substance, it is called a compound. If no chemical reaction takes place—as when mud is added to water—a mixture is formed.



Two atoms of hydrogen and one atom of oxygen combine to form a molecule of water

Compounds

These are often very different from the elements that make them up. Hydrogen and oxygen are invisible and odorless gases. However, when chemically combined, the two create a simple compound called water.

Water flowing at
Niagara Falls, Canada

Mixtures

There are two main types of mixture: solutions and suspensions. In a solution, a substance breaks up into individual atoms or molecules and mixes evenly in another substance, known as the solvent. In a suspension, a substance does not break up completely and may still be floating in the liquid as solid particles.

Ink will
mix evenly in
water to form
a solution



Solution



Suspension

Mud **dissolves**
unevenly in water



Alloys

Metals can be mixed with each other, or with other substances, to create a new substance called an alloy. Alloys have different properties from the substances they are composed of. For example, the alloy bronze is much harder than the metals that make it up—copper and tin.

Car wheels are often made of alloys

Separating mixtures

Several methods can be used to separate substances in a mixture, including evaporation, spinning, filtration, and distillation. The last method involves heating a mixture so that a substance with a lower boiling point can be collected as a gas from the mixture, leaving behind the substance (or substances) with the higher boiling point. Pure water can be obtained from salty water by distillation.

Oil refineries use distillation to separate gas from crude oil



Reactions and changes

Physical changes occur when substances change state. Chemical reactions occur when the atoms in molecules are rearranged to create different molecules. Changes caused by physical reactions are usually easy to reverse, while chemical changes are not.

Chemical reactions

These reactions can be caused by various factors, such as heat or contact with other substances. When food is cooked, heat causes the ingredients to react together chemically, altering their appearance, texture, temperature, and taste.



Flour



Butter



Eggs



Sugar



Baking powder

Physical changes

Some changes are physical, not chemical. When candle wax is heated, it melts and changes to a liquid. However, its molecules do not change, just their physical state. The change can be reversed by remolding and cooling the candle wax.

Melting candle wax



The baked cake is chemically different from its ingredients



Fast changes

Some changes can happen suddenly. When baking soda and vinegar are mixed, the two substances react, causing the liquid to erupt. The speed of change can also be altered: if a potato is cut into small pieces and heated in boiling water, it will change (soften) faster than if it were a single, large piece because the heat has less far to travel to get to the center of the potato pieces.

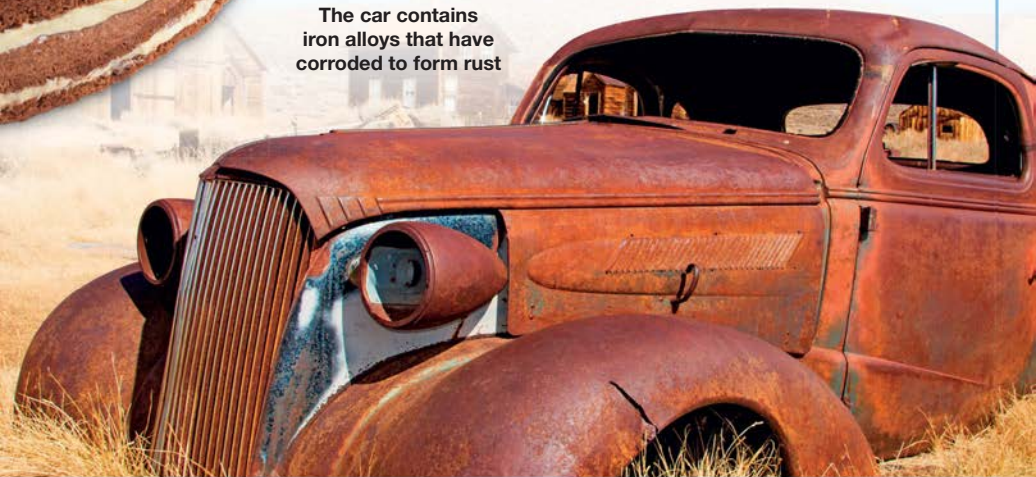
Baking soda mixes with vinegar to form a gas called carbon dioxide, causing the cork to pop



Slow changes

Certain reactions happen over a long period of time—days, weeks, or even years. Corrosion, such as rusting, occurs when metal objects are exposed for too long to the oxygen and moisture present in air, or other corrosive substances.

The car contains iron alloys that have corroded to form rust





**A catalytic converter
from a car**

Catalysts

Some substances, called catalysts, change the rate at which a reaction occurs, although the catalyst itself is not changed in the reaction. Most cars are equipped with a catalytic converter, which helps the polluting gases that fuel the car to react and create less harmful gases. Many catalysts speed up reactions, but others, called inhibitors, slow down reactions. Preservatives, added to food in order to keep it fresh for a longer period, are examples of inhibitors.

Giving off heat

Some reactions release heat, light, or both. These are called exothermic reactions and include the burning of wood or other fuels and reactions between acids and bases (see pages 44–45), resulting in the formation of a salt. The burning of fuel is also known as a combustion reaction and can give off enough energy to power a car or a house.

**The burning of a wick soaked in oil
gives out light and some heat**



Cool reactions

Endothermic reactions are the opposite of exothermic reactions. They absorb heat, rather than releasing it, to change the molecules. Special instant ice packs, used to treat sports injuries, contain water and ammonium chloride. When the pack is activated, the substances mix and react, causing an endothermic reaction which cools the affected area.



An ice pack being applied on the hand

Man-made materials

Sometimes chemical reactions are used to create substances that do not occur naturally. Man-made materials are often used for outdoor clothing. These breathable, waterproof materials are made when certain molecules are combined in a process known as polymerization.

**Man-made
waterproof clothing is
popular with skiers
and climbers**



**REACTIONS AT WORK**

Firework displays are an example of exothermic reactions. They release heat and light. When a spark is applied, the fuse burns down, causing the gunpowder and metal stars within the firework to explode in a spectacular mix of bangs, crackles, and light.

A large firework display at night. In the foreground, a massive, dense cluster of golden-yellow sparks falls from the top left. Below it, numerous vertical streaks of red and white firework trails rise from a blue-lit stadium structure. The background is dark, making the bright fireworks stand out.

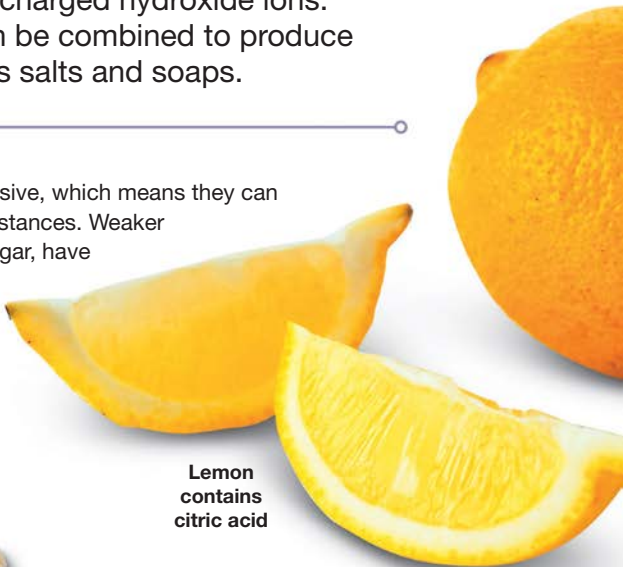
**The largest firework
display ever, in Madeira,
Portugal, in 2006 used
66,326
separate fireworks**

Acids and bases

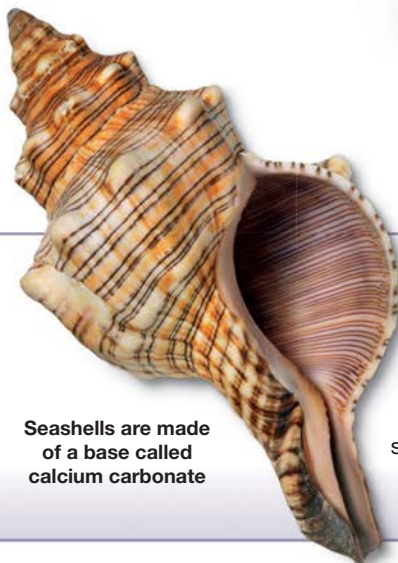
Acids and bases are chemical opposites: acids produce positively charged hydrogen ions and bases produce negatively charged hydroxide ions. Many acids and bases can be combined to produce useful substances, such as salts and soaps.

Acids

Some powerful acids are very corrosive, which means they can destroy, or “eat through,” other substances. Weaker acids, such as lemon juice and vinegar, have a strong, sour taste. These are often used to flavor food and can also be found in many household cleaning products.



**Lemon
contains
citric acid**



**Seashells are made
of a base called
calcium carbonate**

Bases and alkalis

Strong bases can be as dangerous as strong acids, although a base that destroys other substances is usually known as caustic rather than corrosive. Sodium hydroxide (caustic soda) can eat through some metals. Sodium bicarbonate, or baking soda, is a weak base, often used in cooking. Some bases are water-soluble and are called alkalis.

Detergent powder
is formed by mixing
acids and bases



Soaps

Mixing acids and bases

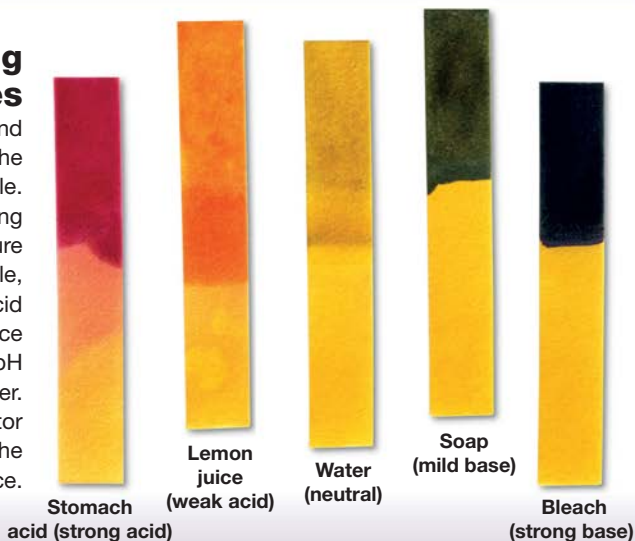
When certain acids and bases are mixed, they can react to produce water and a salt. Soap is made when a strong base is added to a fatty acid (a building block of fats found in our bodies and food), breaking it down to form a hard or soft soap (depending on the base).

Measuring acids and bases

The strength of acids and bases is measured using the pH (power of hydrogen) scale.

It ranges from zero (strong acid) to 14 (strong base). Pure water is seven on the pH scale, which is neutral—neither acid nor base. The pH of a substance can be measured using a pH indicator such as litmus paper.

The color of the indicator changes according to the pH of the substance.



Using materials

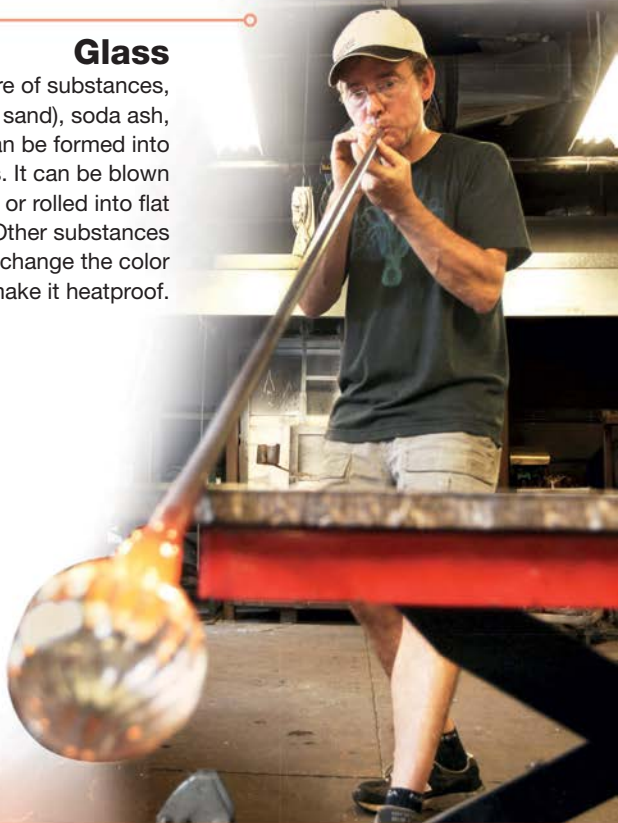
Throughout history, people have used and reused materials. Many natural substances can be adapted or changed to produce new substances. For example, soft clay can be turned into hard pottery, sand can be transformed into glass, and iron and carbon can be combined to form steel.

Glass

Glass is a mixture of substances, including silica (from sand), soda ash, and limestone. Glass can be formed into many different shapes. It can be blown into bottles and jars or rolled into flat sheets for windows. Other substances can be added to change the color of the glass or to make it heatproof.



Molten glass can be blown or molded into different shapes



Processing materials

Many materials can be processed to make different materials. For example, the raw material wood can be cut into building planks or broken into fibers and turned into paper. Paper itself can be torn into strips, mixed with glue, and reused as papier-mâché.

Colorful papier-mâché figures on a Mardi Gras float



Recycling

Many objects and materials can be used more than once, even when they wear out. For example, tires can be reused by adding new tread. Some objects can also be recycled—their materials turned into new objects. Aluminum cans, newspapers, glass bottles, and even electronic equipment are all regularly recycled.

Old computer circuit boards piled up in a recycling container





Energy and forces

Everything in the universe is constantly affected by energy and forces. A roller coaster is a good example of energy and forces in action. Fuel provides the energy needed to generate the force that pulls the roller coaster to the top of the slope. The stored potential energy the roller coaster has at the top is transferred to kinetic (movement) energy by the force of gravity as it runs downhill.



ELECTRICAL ENERGY

Computers use electrical energy to perform a range of tasks and to generate light. When you touch the screen of a tablet computer, you are applying a force to it.

What is energy?

Energy is what makes everything happen. It cannot be created or destroyed, but it can be transferred. For example, kicking a ball transfers energy from the person to the ball. Energy can also be converted from one form to another—as when the chemical energy in gasoline is converted into the kinetic energy in a moving car.



A ball flying
through the air
has kinetic energy

Kinetic energy

The energy an object has because it is moving is called kinetic energy. A ball thrown into the air or a roller coaster hurtling down a track both have kinetic energy. The greater the mass of an object and the faster it moves, the more kinetic energy it will have.

Chemical energy

Energy stored in substances is called chemical energy, and it can only be released through a chemical reaction. Chemical energy is stored in food, which must be broken down and its energy released by the body's metabolism.



Food stores chemical energy



Chemical energy stored in batteries is converted into electrical energy



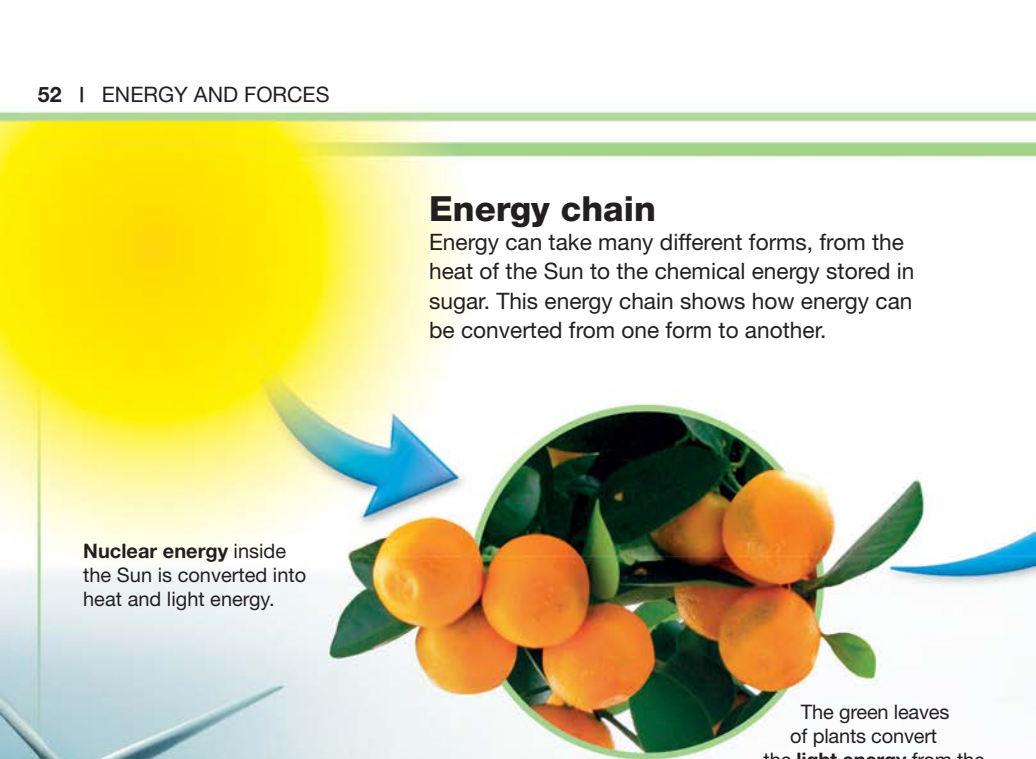
Potential energy is stored in the string of the bow

Potential energy

An object can store energy and release it later. Stored energy is also called potential energy because it has the potential to make things happen. A coiled spring has potential energy, as does an archer's bow when it is drawn and ready to shoot an arrow. When the spring is not coiled and the bow not drawn, they have no potential energy.

Energy chain

Energy can take many different forms, from the heat of the Sun to the chemical energy stored in sugar. This energy chain shows how energy can be converted from one form to another.



Nuclear energy inside the Sun is converted into heat and light energy.



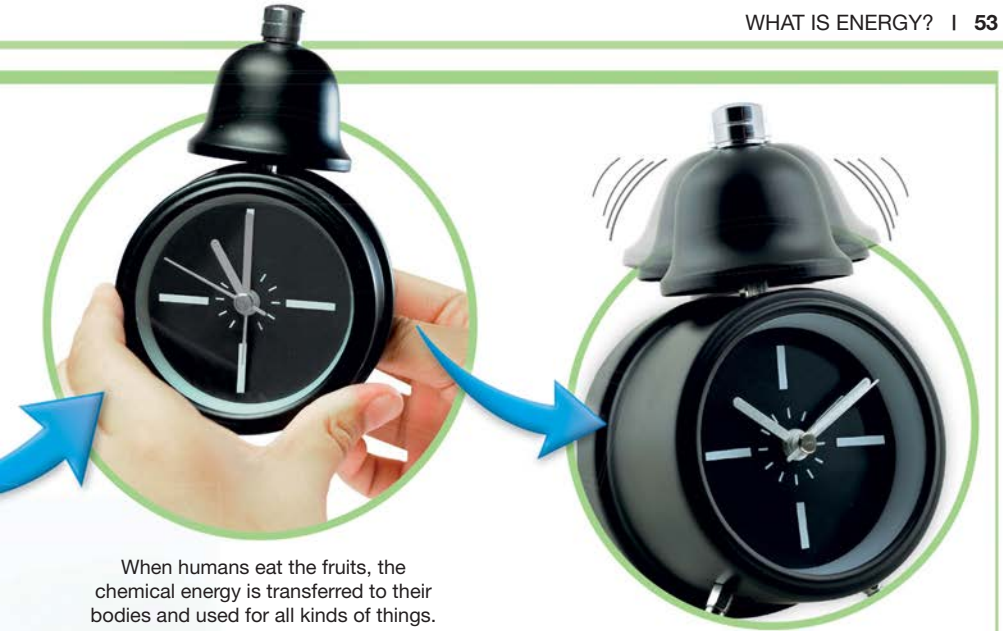
The green leaves of plants convert the **light energy** from the Sun into the **chemical energy** stored in sugar, by a process called photosynthesis (see page 115). Sugar is then stored in fruits.

Energy resources

Humans harness energy from many sources to supply power to their homes and vehicles. These include solar power, wind power, and nuclear power. The vast majority of our power, however, comes from fossil fuels, such as oil, coal, and gas.



Wind mills



When humans eat the fruits, the chemical energy is transferred to their bodies and used for all kinds of things. Winding up an alarm clock, for example, changes this chemical energy to **potential energy** in the spring of the alarm.

The potential energy of the wound-up spring is converted into the **kinetic energy** of the alarm bell and the **sound energy** of the alarm.

The clock keeps working until the spring is unwound and has lost its potential energy.

Saving energy

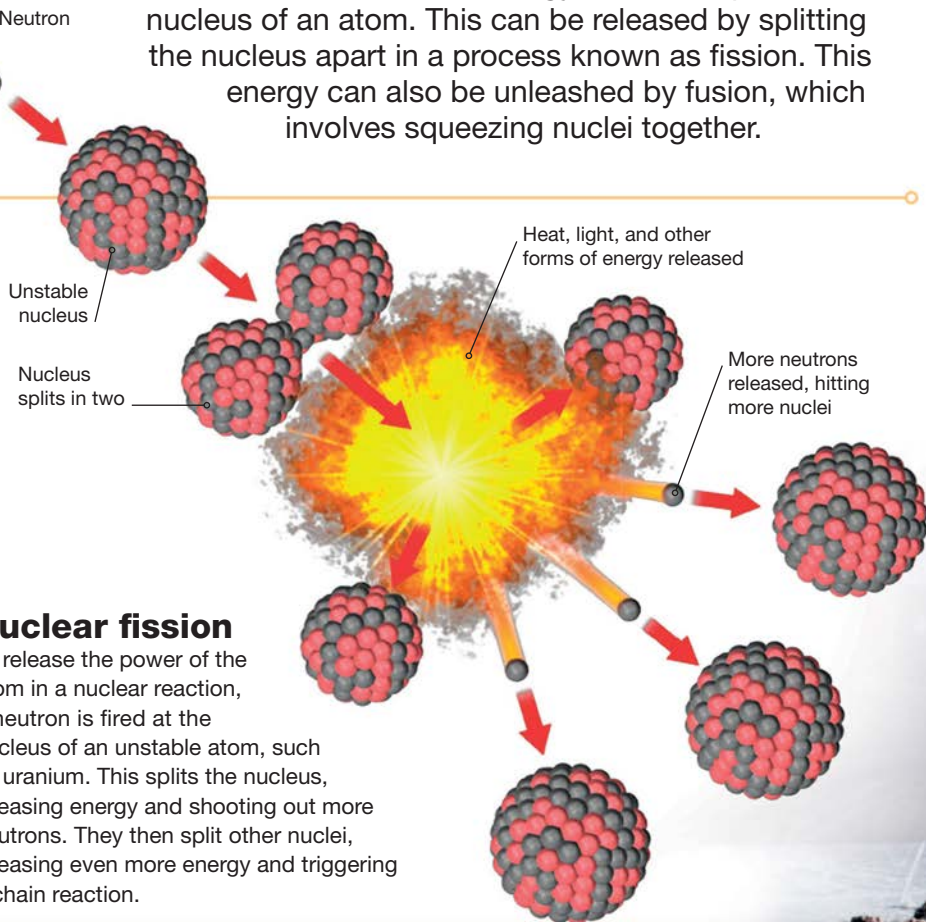
One day the supply of fossil fuels will run out and we may face energy shortages. It is important to save energy, for example, by using low-energy light bulbs and insulating homes. Many governments have also begun investing in reusable sources of energy, such as solar and wind power.



Solar panels absorb sunlight to produce electricity

Atom power

An enormous amount of energy is locked up inside the nucleus of an atom. This can be released by splitting the nucleus apart in a process known as fission. This energy can also be unleashed by fusion, which involves squeezing nuclei together.



Nuclear fission

To release the power of the atom in a nuclear reaction, a neutron is fired at the nucleus of an unstable atom, such as uranium. This splits the nucleus, releasing energy and shooting out more neutrons. They then split other nuclei, releasing even more energy and triggering a chain reaction.



Using fission power

Fission reactions take place in a nuclear power plant. Although only a small amount of fuel, usually uranium or plutonium, is used, huge amounts of energy are released. This superheats water, which is turned into high-pressure steam and drives the blades of a turbine. The spinning turbine drives a generator, which makes electricity.

Nuclear power plant

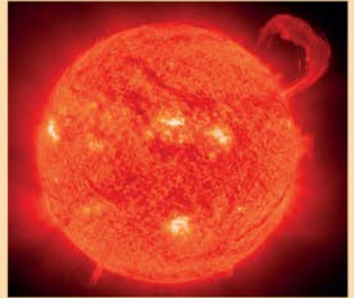
Atomic explosion

Atomic bombs, or A-bombs, use nuclear fission to release massive amounts of energy with devastating effects. Hydrogen bombs, or H-bombs, use both nuclear fission and nuclear fusion to generate explosions that can be thousands of times more powerful than an atomic bomb explosion.



A test detonation of a US atomic bomb in 1957 throws up a giant mushroom cloud of debris

STAR POWER



The Sun releases a lot of energy

Nuclear fusion releases energy by forcing nuclei together to form new elements. Fusion reactions are the source of the Sun's energy. Every second, deep inside its core, 699 million tons (635 million metric tons) of hydrogen turn into helium.

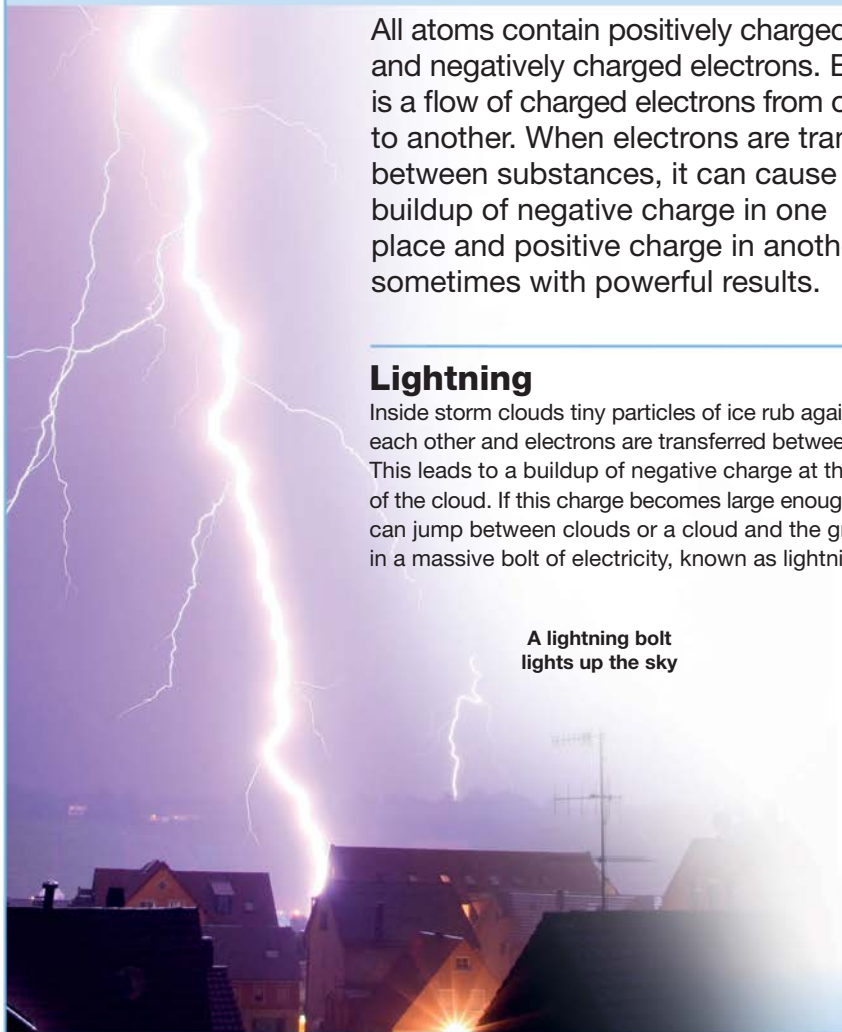
Electricity

All atoms contain positively charged protons and negatively charged electrons. Electricity is a flow of charged electrons from one place to another. When electrons are transferred between substances, it can cause a buildup of negative charge in one place and positive charge in another — sometimes with powerful results.

Lightning

Inside storm clouds tiny particles of ice rub against each other and electrons are transferred between particles. This leads to a buildup of negative charge at the bottom of the cloud. If this charge becomes large enough, it can jump between clouds or a cloud and the ground in a massive bolt of electricity, known as lightning.

**A lightning bolt
lights up the sky**





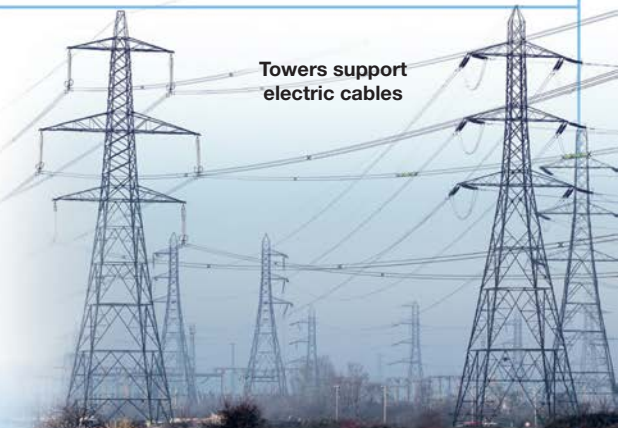
Static electricity

When electrical charge builds up in one place it is called static electricity. If you rub your hair on a balloon, electrons are transferred from your hair to the balloon. This gives your hair a positive charge and the balloon a negative charge. Particles with opposite charge are attracted to each other so your hair will stick to the balloon.

Hairs separate because particles with the same kind of charge repel each other

Current electricity

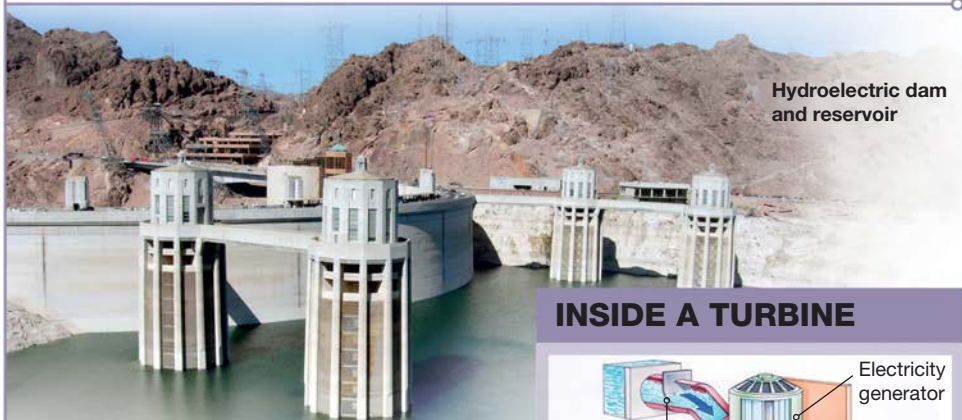
The electricity that powers our homes is known as current electricity. It flows from power plants to our homes and offices along long electric cables that are made from conducting materials (see page 25). These cables are supported by towers that are protected from the current by ceramic insulators.



Towers support electric cables

Using electricity

The electricity we use around our homes and to power our gadgets is produced in several ways. It can be generated in massive power plants located far away. On a smaller scale, items such as flashlights and cell phones can be powered by batteries that provide electricity whenever we want.

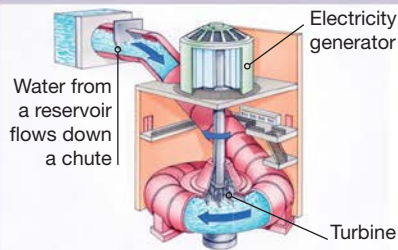


Hydroelectric dam and reservoir

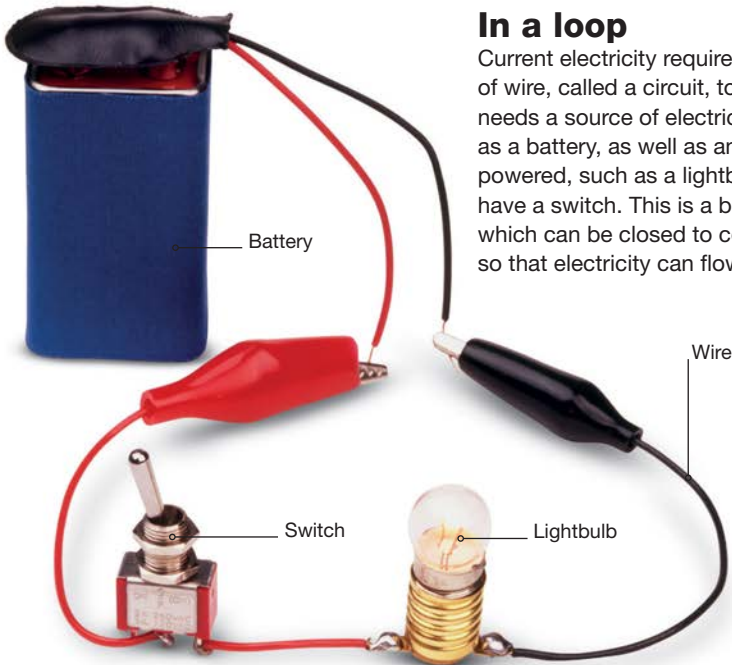
Generating electricity

Electricity is produced, or generated, at power plants. They use massive machines called generators, which contain large coils of wire that spin inside a magnetic field to produce electricity. The coils are connected to turbines—large wheels with blades that are pushed around by steam or water. The steam is produced by heating coal, oil, or gas, or using nuclear power. Water-powered turbines are found at hydroelectric power plants.

INSIDE A TURBINE



When water is released from a hydroelectric power plant's reservoir it rushes past the turbine's blades, sending them spinning.



A simple circuit

In a loop


Current electricity requires a complete loop of wire, called a circuit, to flow. A circuit needs a source of electrical energy, such as a battery, as well as an object to be powered, such as a lightbulb. It can also have a switch. This is a break in the circuit, which can be closed to complete the loop so that electricity can flow.

Storing electricity

Batteries store energy in chemicals.

When a battery is put into a circuit it makes a current flow around the circuit. Batteries are very useful for small electrical devices that do not need much power, or for devices that have to be portable.





**From 1950 to 2011,
the population of the
US doubled, but electricity
use increased to more than**

13 times

the amount used in 1950

**BRIGHT LIGHTS**

Twinkling lights show where the towns and cities are on this satellite image of the US at night.

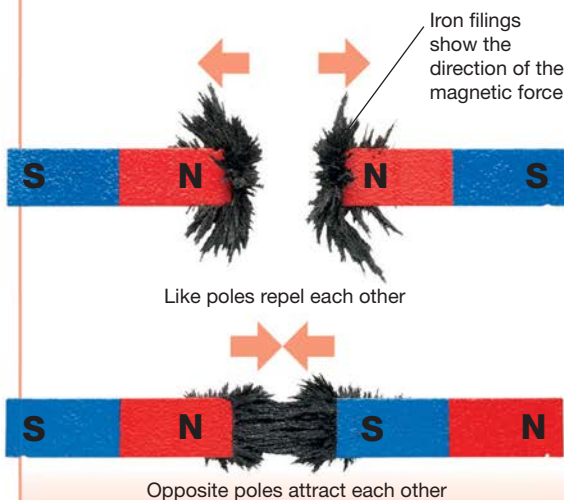
The country generates more electricity than any other—more than twice the generating capacity of the second largest producer of electricity, China.

Magnetism

Magnetism is a force that can attract (pull toward) or repel (push away). Materials that are strongly attracted to magnets, such as iron or nickel, are called ferromagnetic materials. Some magnets are permanently charged with magnetism, while others are only magnetic when they are inside a coil of wire with an electrical current flowing in it.

Repel or attract

A magnet has two ends, or poles—a north pole and a south pole. When two magnets are placed near each other with like (the same) poles facing, the two poles will push each other away. If a north pole is facing a south pole, they will pull toward each other.



Iron filings cluster near the poles where the magnetic field is strongest

North pole of magnet



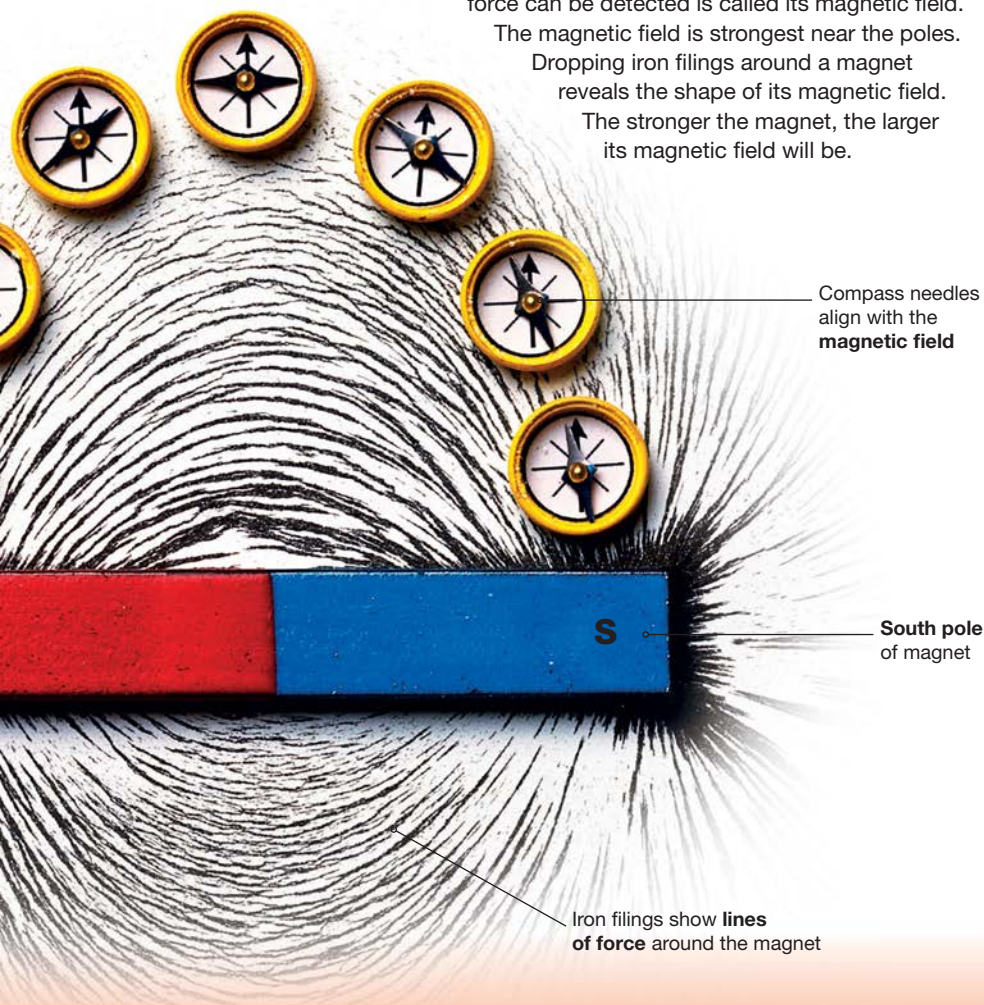
Magnetic field

The area around a magnet where a magnetic force can be detected is called its magnetic field.

The magnetic field is strongest near the poles.

Dropping iron filings around a magnet reveals the shape of its magnetic field.

The stronger the magnet, the larger its magnetic field will be.



Compass needles align with the **magnetic field**

South pole of magnet

Iron filings show **lines of force** around the magnet

Magnets in action

We use magnets in many different ways. The motors inside many machines are driven by small magnets, while large magnets can power trains. Compasses use Earth's magnetism to show us the way.

Electric motors

This toy car is powered by an electric motor, which uses magnets to produce a spinning motion. Electric motors are found in many machines. Washing machines and vacuum cleaners contain large motors, while the hands of a wristwatch are moved by tiny motors just a few millimeters wide.



Magnetic trains

A maglev train is moved by magnetism. Magnets under the train and on the track make the train hover up to nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ in (10 mm) above the track. The train does not have an engine, but is pushed forward by another set of magnets, and can reach speeds of up to 360 mph (580 kph).

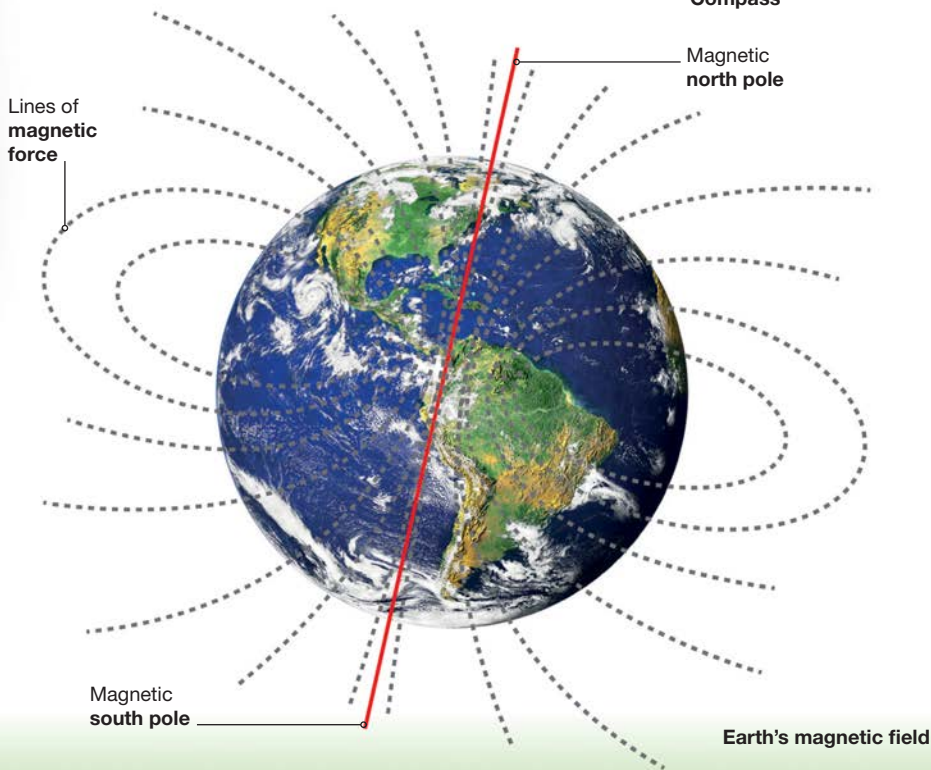


Magnetic Earth

Earth is a giant magnet. It is surrounded by a magnetic field, which is produced by electric currents deep inside the planet's molten metal core. A compass works by sensing Earth's magnetism. It contains a small magnetic needle, and the south pole of the needle points toward Earth's magnetic north pole.

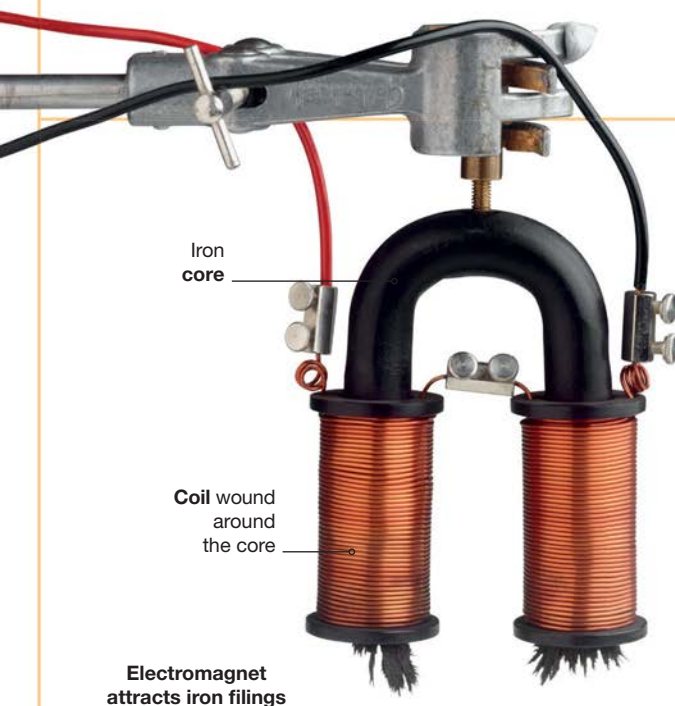


Compass



Electromagnetism

An electrical current always produces a magnetic field around it. Electromagnets are made by passing electricity through a wire that has been wrapped around a piece of iron. Unlike permanent magnets, an electromagnet loses its magnetism as soon as the electrical current is switched off.



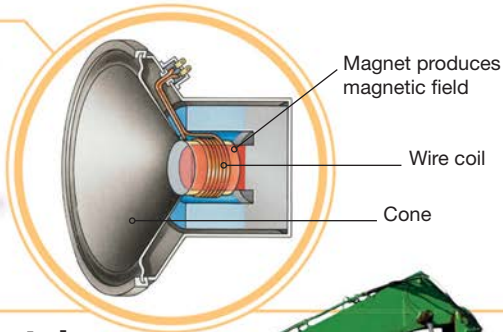
How an electromagnet works

To make an electromagnet, a copper wire is wrapped tightly around an iron core. When electricity passes through the wire, the iron core is turned into a magnet. The stronger the electrical current, and the more times the wire is wrapped around the core, the stronger the magnet will be.



Making sounds

Speakers use electromagnets to make sounds. Electricity flows through a small electromagnet inside the speaker. Changes to its magnetic field causes a cone to vibrate. We hear these vibrations as sounds. Varying the strength of the electrical current changes the volume of the sound produced by the speaker.



Lifting metals

Scrapyards use powerful electromagnets to pick up and move heavy objects. Only magnetic materials such as iron are attracted to the magnet. Electromagnets are also used to separate magnetic metal from non-magnetic materials so that it can be recycled.



The EM spectrum

Electromagnetic (EM) radiation is a form of energy that travels in waves at a speed of 186,000 miles (300,000 km) per second, which is the fastest speed in the universe. Different kinds of radiation make up the EM spectrum. All types of radiation except visible light are invisible.

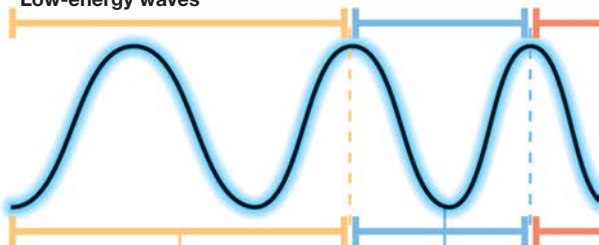


The spectrum

The EM spectrum is made up of seven major types of radiation, which vary in the length of their waves. The shorter the radiation's wavelength, the higher its energy. The longest waves can be many miles long, while the shortest are shorter than a single atom.

Hot objects, including mammals, give off invisible rays of heat called **infrared (IR) waves**.

Low-energy waves



Radio waves have the longest wavelength. Radio and TV broadcasts and Wi-Fi use radio waves.



Microwaves are used to heat food. They are also used by cell phones.



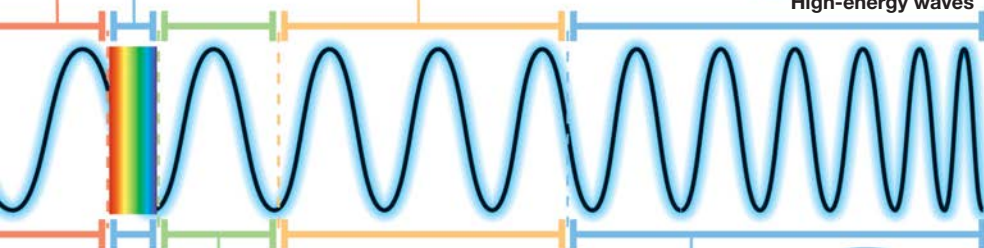


Visible light includes all the colors of the rainbow.

X-rays have enough energy to pass through many materials. They are used to scan the contents of bags at security checks.



High-energy waves



Sunlight contains **ultraviolet (UV) rays**. Goggles, sunglasses, and sun screen protect the eyes and skin from UV rays, which can be harmful.

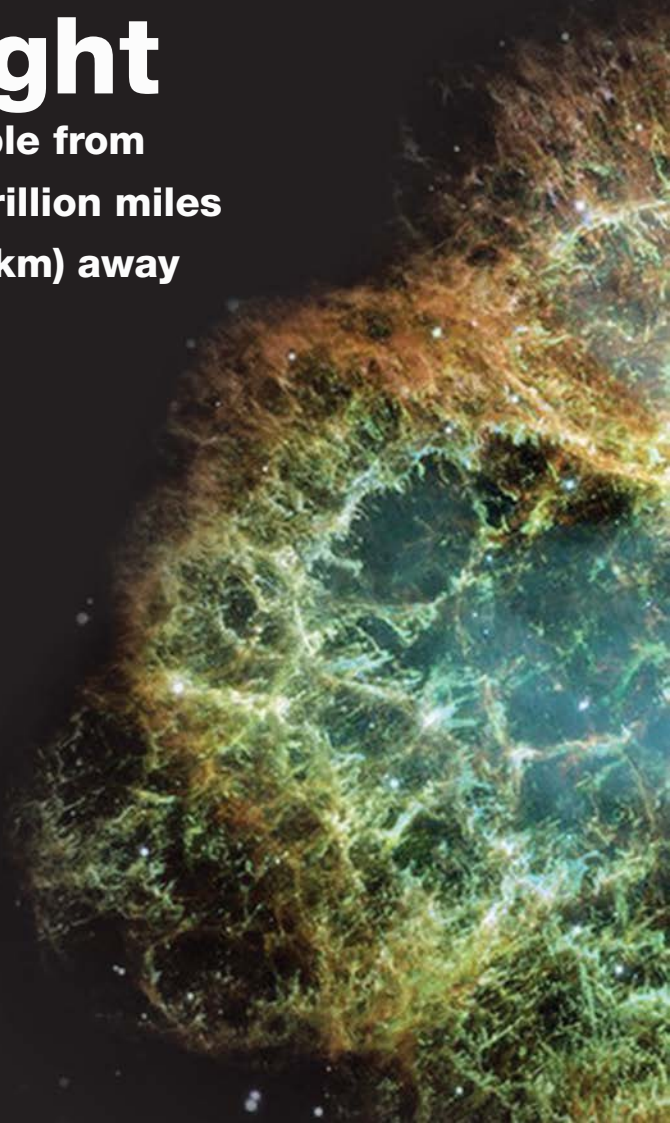


Gamma rays have the highest energy of all. Observatories measure gamma rays emitted by very hot stars and other bodies in space.

**The explosion of the star that formed
the Crab Nebula in 1054 CE was**

so bright

**that it was visible from
Earth, 39,000 trillion miles
(62,000 trillion km) away**



**GAMMA RADIATION**

The remains of dying stars, such as the Crab Nebula, give out large quantities of radiation, including powerful bursts of gamma rays. Although this nebula is 30 million miles (50 million km) wide, it can now only be seen through a telescope. When it first formed, it could be seen with the naked eye.

Light

Light is the only form of electromagnetic radiation we can see. Most things absorb and reflect light, but few objects give out light. The Sun is the main source of light in the day, while electric lights provide illumination at night.

Making shadows

Some materials, such as glass, allow light to pass through them. They are known as transparent. Other materials, such as wood or metals, do not let light pass through. They are known as opaque. If something blocks the path of light, it creates a dark area behind called a shadow.

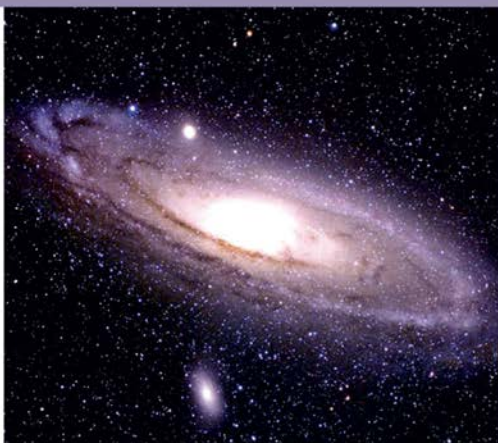
A snowboarder blocks the straight path of light, creating a shadow



Speed of light

In a vacuum (a space that is empty of all matter), light travels at 186,000 miles (300,000 km) per second. Nothing in the universe can travel faster. The distances of very far-off objects, such as stars and galaxies, are calculated using the distance light can travel in a year. This distance is known as a light-year. One light-year equals about 6 trillion miles (10 trillion km).

**The Andromeda Galaxy is
2.5 million light-years away**



Bending and reflecting

Light normally travels in straight lines. When light travels from one material to another, such as when it passes from air to water, its path is bent, or refracted. This can create a distorted image. Light is also bounced, or reflected, by a shiny surface, which sends light back at the same angle at which it hits the surface.

**Refraction makes
the straw appear bent
where it meets the water**

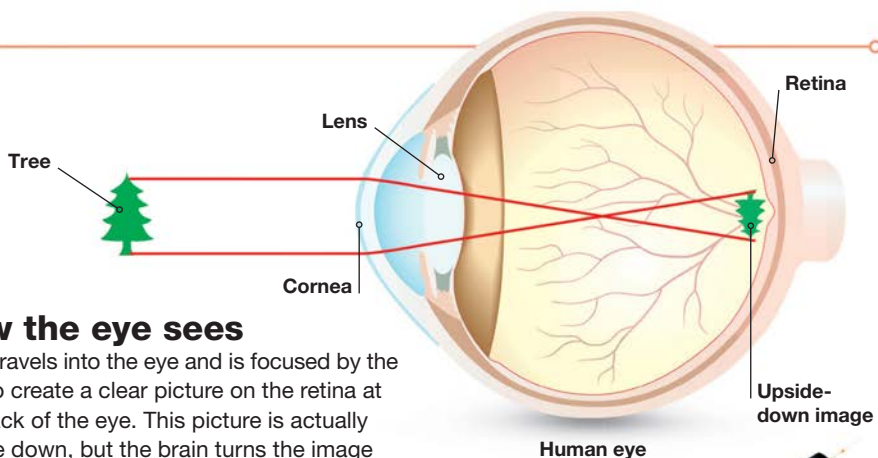


**Reflection
in a mirror**



Using light

We need light to see the world and to find our way around it. In the earliest days of humanity, we just used the natural light produced by the Sun and went to bed when it got dark. Today, we can also use artificial lights to illuminate the world.



How the eye sees

Light travels into the eye and is focused by the lens to create a clear picture on the retina at the back of the eye. This picture is actually upside down, but the brain turns the image the right way up so we can understand it.

Telescopes

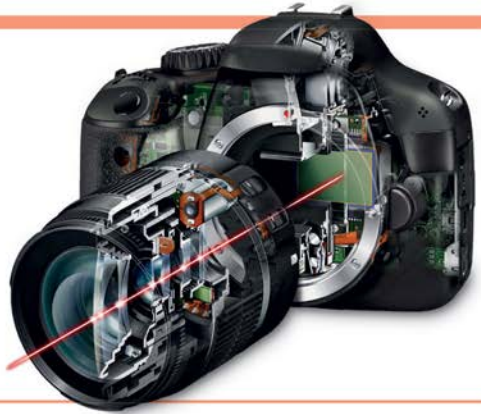
Telescopes collect light from distant objects, such as planets and stars. Lenses and mirrors within the telescope then bend the light rays to make a clear image of the object, making it seem closer than it really is.



Camera

Like our eyes, cameras collect and bend light to produce a clear picture. The camera lens focuses light into an image, which is recorded on light-sensitive film or a light-sensitive microchip.

Light is focused by a number of glass lenses to form a sharp image



Lighting the dark

Electric lights convert electrical energy into light. In an incandescent light bulb, this is done by heating a thin piece of metal until it glows. In compact fluorescent lights, electricity is passed through a gas, causing the lamp's phosphor coating to glow and create light.

Electric lights illuminate the city of Penang, Malaysia, at night



Radioactivity

In some atoms, the nucleus changes over time, releasing particles and energy, known as radiation. This process is called radioactive decay. We encounter low-level radiation all the time—in the soil, in the air, and in the food we eat.

Types of radioactivity

There are three types of radioactivity: positively charged alpha particles, which are slow-moving and cannot pass through materials easily; negatively charged beta particles, which move much faster; and gamma rays—a form of electromagnetic radiation (see pages 68–69)—which carry no charge.

Radioactivity was discovered in 1896 by the French physicist Henri Becquerel when he was investigating X-rays.

An alpha particle consists of two protons and two neutrons



A beta particle is a high-energy electron



Gamma rays are not particles, but electromagnetic waves

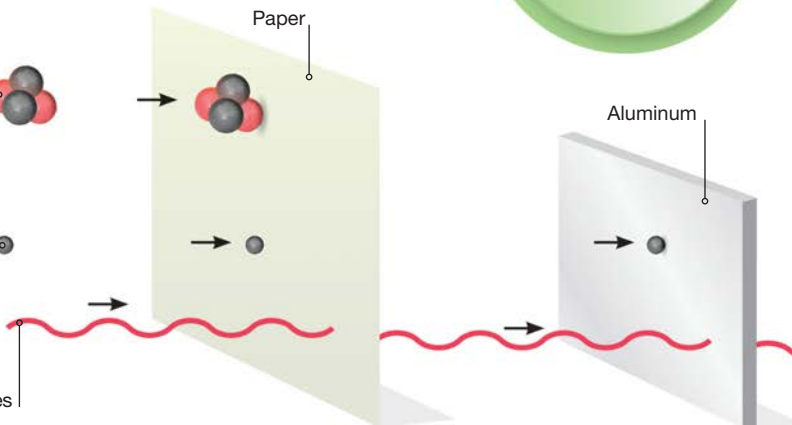


Alpha particles cannot pass through paper, but beta particles and gamma rays can

Paper

Aluminum

Beta particles are blocked by a thin sheet of metal, but gamma rays pass through





Detecting radiation

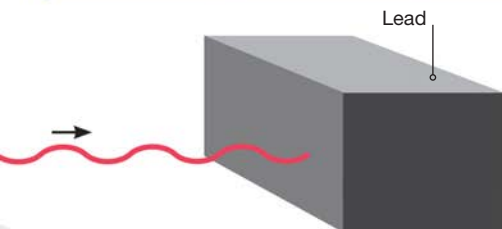
Radiation is invisible, but it can be detected using a Geiger counter. This simple handheld device uses a gas-filled tube to measure the presence of alpha particles, beta particles, and gamma rays.

Measuring radiation levels in tomatoes



Using radiation

While high levels of radiation can be harmful, some forms of radioactivity are useful. PET scanners use gamma rays to produce highly detailed images of the inside of the body, which can help doctors to diagnose illnesses.



Gamma rays can be stopped only by a thick layer of dense material, such as lead



Heat

The atoms and molecules that make up matter are always on the move. The more energy they have, the faster they move. We feel this energy as heat. Heat will always move from a warmer area to a colder one until both areas are the same temperature.

Cooling down

The molecules in a hot mug of coffee are moving very fast. The coffee transfers heat energy to the cooler air. This makes the molecules in the coffee slow down, meaning that it gets cooler. After about an hour, the coffee and the air will be the same temperature. The colder the air around the mug, the faster the coffee will cool down.



This infrared image of a person eating an ice pop shows the coldest areas in black and warm areas in red and yellow



Detecting heat

Heat energy escapes objects as infrared radiation. Infrared is invisible to our eyes, but special cameras can detect it. Infrared cameras are used by firefighters to see whether there are people trapped in a building, and by the military to see at night.

The balloon is filled with hot, less dense air

Expanding air

When substances heat up, the molecules in them move faster and take up more space. This means that substances expand as they are warmed and become less dense. To make a hot-air balloon float, a burner heats up the air in the balloon. The air inside the balloon is now less dense than the colder air outside it. This causes the balloon to rise.



Measuring temperature

Temperatures are measured using thermometers. Simple thermometers work by measuring the length of a column of liquid. As the temperature increases, the liquid expands and the column becomes longer.

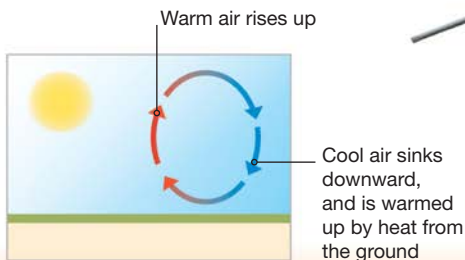
Radiation

Warm objects give off heat in the form of infrared radiation. Earth is warmed by the heat given off by the Sun, which is the hottest object in the solar system. Infrared lamps can be used to produce heat—the lamp shown here keeps the pigs warm at night.



Convection

Heat can be transferred from one place to another through convection, which is the movement of hot liquid or gas, such as air. As air heats up, it becomes less dense and rises. Cooler air sinks and takes its place. This causes convection currents of moving air.



Convection currents

Hang-gliders fly on **convection currents** of warm, rising air



Insulators

Materials that do not allow heat to pass through them easily are called insulators.

Plastic, rubber, and wood are all insulators. Air is also a good insulator. Fur keeps animals warm by trapping a layer of air next to the skin. This stops heat from being removed from the body.

Clothing made from good insulating material keeps this climber warm



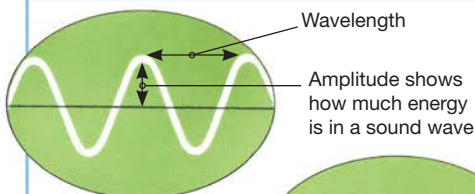
Conduction

As molecules move, they pass on some of their heat energy to neighboring molecules. This transfer of heat is called conduction. Solids conduct heat more easily than liquids or gases. Metals are good conductors and are used to make saucepans and the base plates of irons.

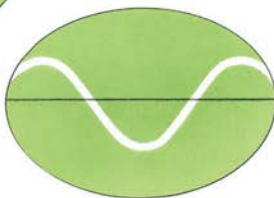


Sound

Sounds are vibrations that we hear with our ears. The vibrations travel through substances such as air or water in the form of sound waves. When the waves reach our ears, they make our eardrums vibrate. The size and shape of the waves determine the kind of sound we hear.



A high-frequency wave has a short wavelength



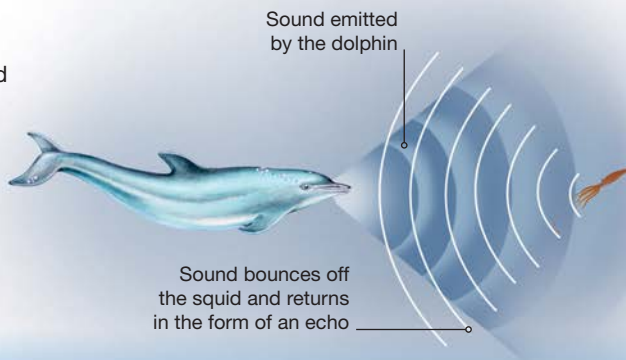
High and low

The number of vibrations a sound wave makes every second is called its frequency. The higher a sound's frequency, the higher its pitch, or note. Some animals, such as dogs, can hear sounds with a very high pitch that humans cannot hear. Elephants can hear very low-pitched sounds.

A low-frequency wave has a long wavelength

Using sounds

Sound waves bounce off hard objects. We hear sound bouncing back at us as an echo. Some animals, such as dolphins and bats, use echoes to detect prey. They emit high-pitched sounds and listen out for any echo bouncing back off objects around them.



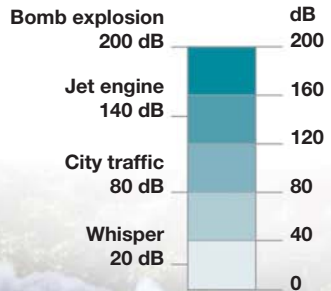
Sound quality

The quality, or timber, of a sound is determined by the shape of its wave. Each instrument in an orchestra has a different timber. Some, such as a flute, produce sound waves with a regular shape, which we hear as a pure note. Others, such as drums, make rougher sounds with irregular waves.



Loud and soft

The more energy a sound wave contains, the larger its amplitude. We hear sounds with lots of energy as loud sounds. A sound's loudness is measured in decibels. Decibels are measured on a special scale called a logarithmic scale. A sound measured at 20 dB is 10 times louder than one measured at 30 dB.



The sound of a bomb explosion may hit 200 dB, which is loud enough to damage our ears



Forces

Forces are pushes and pulls that change an object's shape or movement. Every time an object speeds up, slows down, or changes direction, this happens because a force is acting on it. Forces such as gravity can act over huge distances, keeping the planets in orbit around the Sun.


Gravity

The force of gravity pulls all objects toward each other. Objects with just a small mass only pull very weakly, but the gravity of our planet Earth is strong enough to hold us to the ground. Space rockets use powerful engines to push them away from the ground and break free from Earth's gravity.

Hot gases are pushed downward

An **equal and opposite force** pushes the rocket upward

Atlas V rocket
launching into space



A black hole is a very dense object in space. It has such strong gravity it pulls everything around it, even light from stars.



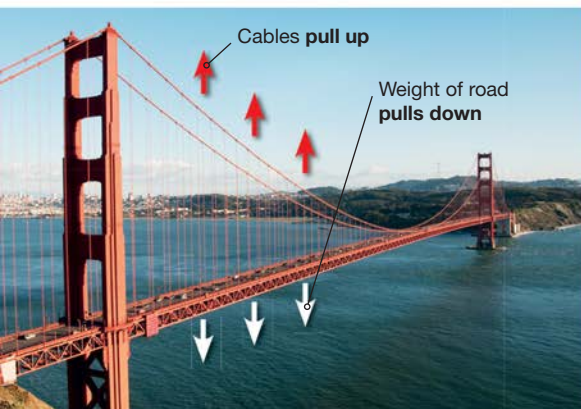
Wide tracks spread the weight of the tank over a large area, stopping it from sinking in the sand

Under pressure

A force acting on a particular area causes pressure. A force applied over a small area produces more pressure than the same force applied over a larger area. The tracks on a tank's wheels spread its weight over a large area. This reduces the pressure and stops it from sinking in soft ground.



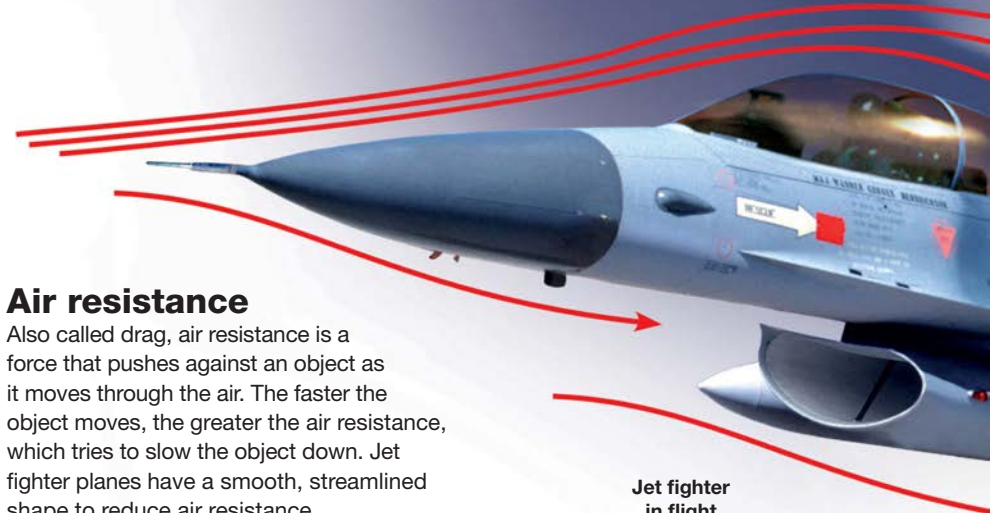
The force of the person swinging the pick ax is concentrated on the sharp point of the ax, producing enough pressure to split the rock



Balanced forces

More than one force can act on an object at the same time. Two forces pulling in opposite directions will stretch an object, but will not move it. The cables holding up a suspension bridge pull against the weight of the bridge to stop it from collapsing.

Golden Gate Bridge,
San Francisco, California



Air resistance

Also called drag, air resistance is a force that pushes against an object as it moves through the air. The faster the object moves, the greater the air resistance, which tries to slow the object down. Jet fighter planes have a smooth, streamlined shape to reduce air resistance.

Jet fighter
in flight

Friction

When two objects rub against each other, the action produces a force called friction. Friction slows down movement and generates heat. The brakes in cars use friction to slow their wheels down by pressing a disk against them.



Brake disk glows because
of heat caused by friction

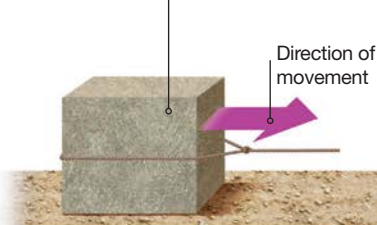


Reducing friction

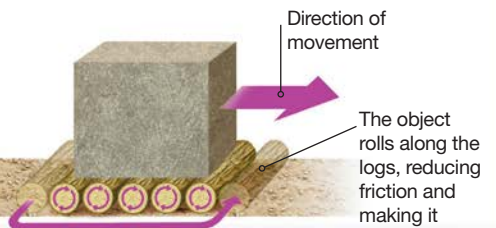
Friction is caused when the rough surfaces of objects catch one another as the objects rub against each other.

Rolling movement reduces friction because a rolling object rubs much less against the flat surface it is rolling on.

The object slides on the ground, producing a lot of friction, making it hard to move



Pulling without logs



Pulling with logs

Forces and movement

Whenever an object changes speed or direction, this happens because a force is acting on it. More than 300 years ago, the English scientist Isaac Newton worked out three laws of motion that explain how forces affect movement.

First law of motion

The first law states that an object will continue at the same velocity in a straight line if no force is acting on it. If the object is not moving, it will remain at rest until a force acts on it. The space probe *Voyager 2* is flying through space with almost no forces acting on it to slow it down, so it will continue moving at the same velocity.



Second law of motion

According to Newton's second law, the greater the force applied, the greater the acceleration. Acceleration also depends on the mass of the object—the more mass it has, the more force is needed to accelerate it. Motorcycles have much smaller mass than cars and can accelerate very quickly.



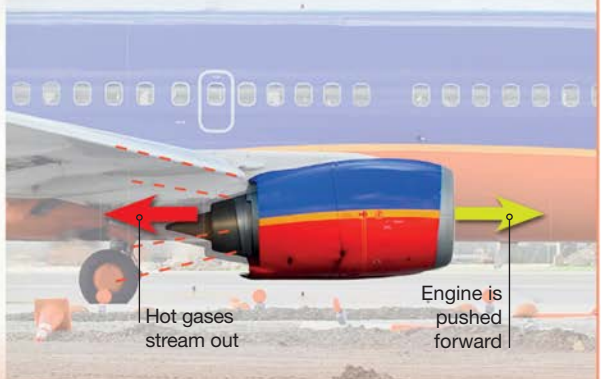
VELOCITY AND ACCELERATION

An object's velocity is the speed at which it is traveling in a particular direction. An increase in velocity is called acceleration, while a decrease is called deceleration. Race cars have powerful engines and can accelerate to high speeds incredibly quickly—from 0 to 100 mph (160 kph) in under 5 seconds.



Third law of motion

Newton's third law of motion states that every action has an equal and opposite reaction. A jet engine attached to an aircraft burns fuel to send out a powerful stream of hot gases behind it. As this jet of gases shoots backward, it pushes the engine forward, and the aircraft with it.



Wind speeds in a tornado

can reach more than

300 mph

(480 kph), strong enough

to tear down trees and send

cars flying through the air

THE FORCES OF WIND

Tornadoes are violently destructive storms that form from rotating blocks of air in thunderclouds. As the hot air rises and the cold air sinks, the two blocks begin to spin, forming a rotating column of superfast winds.



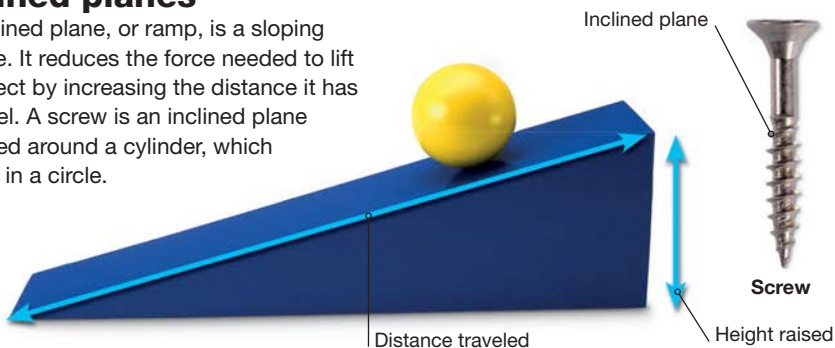


Simple machines

We use simple machines to help us do our work more easily. There are six kinds of simple machine. They change the direction or size of a force, allowing us to use less effort when moving, separating, or keeping heavy objects in place.

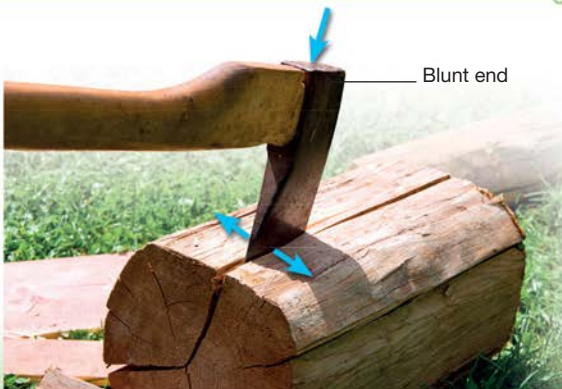
Inclined planes

An inclined plane, or ramp, is a sloping surface. It reduces the force needed to lift an object by increasing the distance it has to travel. A screw is an inclined plane wrapped around a cylinder, which moves in a circle.



Wedges

A wedge is a triangular-shaped machine. It changes a force applied to its blunt end into a force that pushes outward. Wedges can be used to cut through objects—as with an ax cutting through wood—or to hold objects in place, like a wedge holding open a door.



Wheels

A wheel is a machine attached to a central shaft, or axle. The axle and wheel turn together. Monster trucks have huge wheels, which allow them to ride over large obstacles, including cars. Each turn of the wheels moves the truck a long distance.



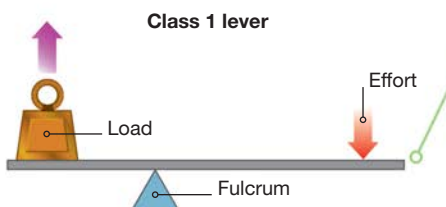
Gears

Gears are wheels with teeth. Connected together, gears transfer a force from one place to another and can change the size of the force. Here, the larger yellow gear is twice the size of the smaller blue one. So, for every complete turn of the yellow gear, the blue gear turns twice.

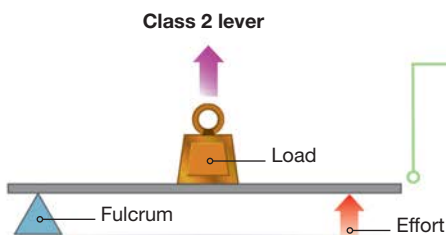


Levers

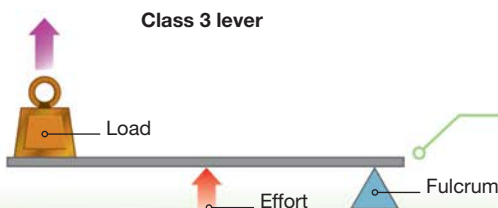
Simple machines called levers make it easier to lift heavy loads. A lever is fixed at one point, called the fulcrum, and rotates around that point. There are three different classes of lever, depending on the position of the fulcrum, the load, and the effort needed to lift the load.



Clawhead hammer

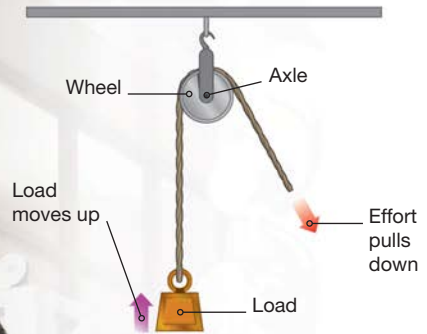


Wheelbarrow



Shovel





Working of a pulley system

Pulleys

A pulley is a wheel on an axle with a rope running around it. A single pulley on its own can change the direction of a force. Two or more pulleys working together reduce the amount of force needed to lift a load by increasing the distance the rope has to travel.

Pulley system being used in a weight-training exercise

Complex machines

Simple machines can be combined to make complex machines. A pair of scissors is a complex machine that combines two types of simple machine—the blades as wedges and the handles as levers.

The Space Shuttle was probably the most complex machine ever built, with more than 2.5 million separate parts.

Crane

A mobile crane combines three simple machines to pick up loads and move them. The load is lifted vertically using pulleys, which are attached to a jib. The jib acts as a lever. The crane is mounted on wheels so it can move around.

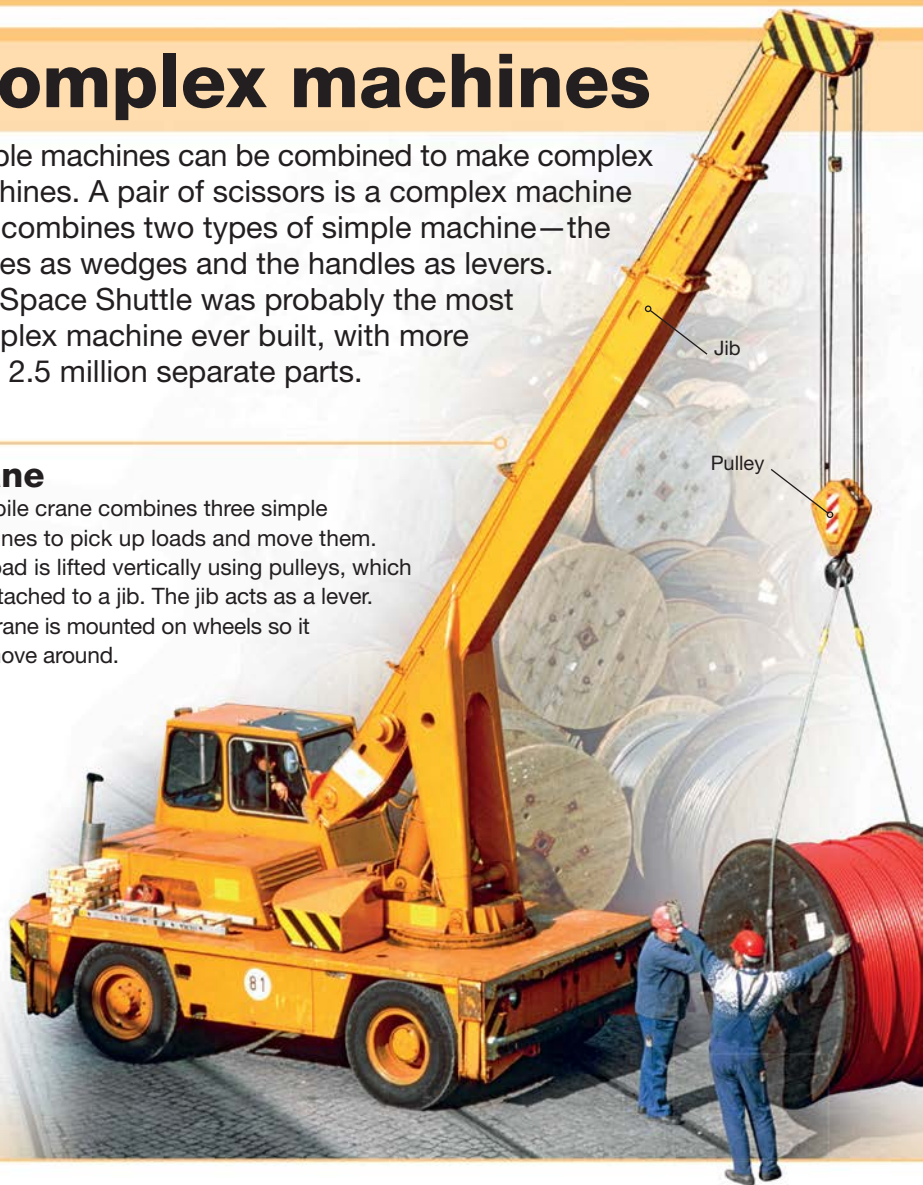
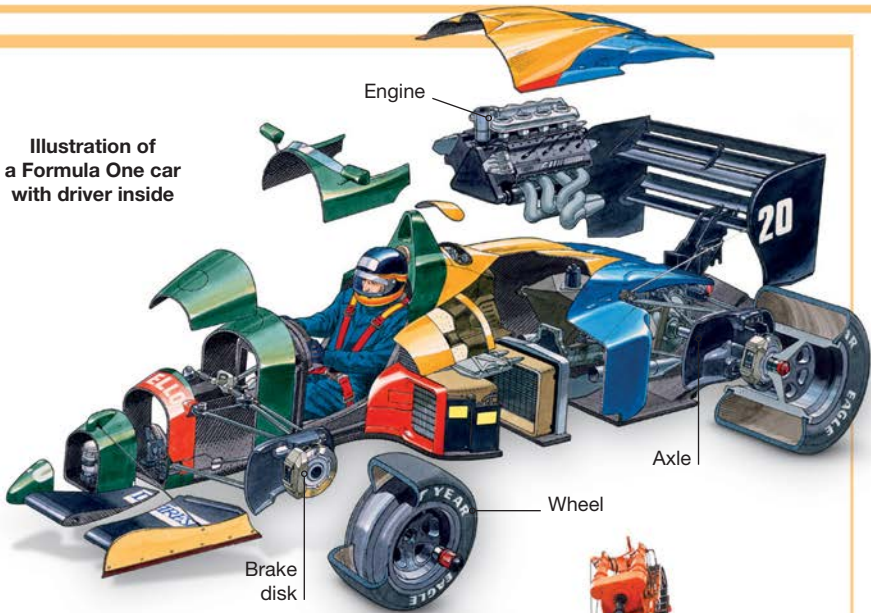


Illustration of
a Formula One car
with driver inside



Car

A car contains many simple machines. The wheels are attached to a gearbox, which allows the car to move at different speeds. The driver changes gears by pulling on the gearstick, which is a lever. The engine changes the energy from burning fuel into movements that turn the wheels.

Boring drill

A boring drill is a machine used to make deep holes in the ground. The drill bit is a screw with a sharp wedge on one end. A powerful engine turns the drill bit using a large force so that it can cut through hard ground and rock.



Computers

A computer is a machine that can be programmed to perform a huge range of tasks. Computers work using simple electronic circuits, called transistors, which can only be turned on or off. Millions of transistors can be combined to form microprocessors, which process instructions and tell the computer what to do.



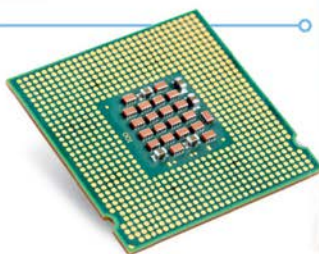
Early computers

Scientists in the UK and the US developed the first programmable electronic computers during World War II. With circuits made up of bulky wire and valves, these early computers were huge, often filling entire rooms.

ENIAC, an early computer

Microchip

Computers began to get smaller and faster following the invention of the microchip in the late 1950s. A microchip is a small piece of semiconducting material, such as silicon (see page 35), on to which millions of tiny circuits have been traced.



Computer chip



Modern computers

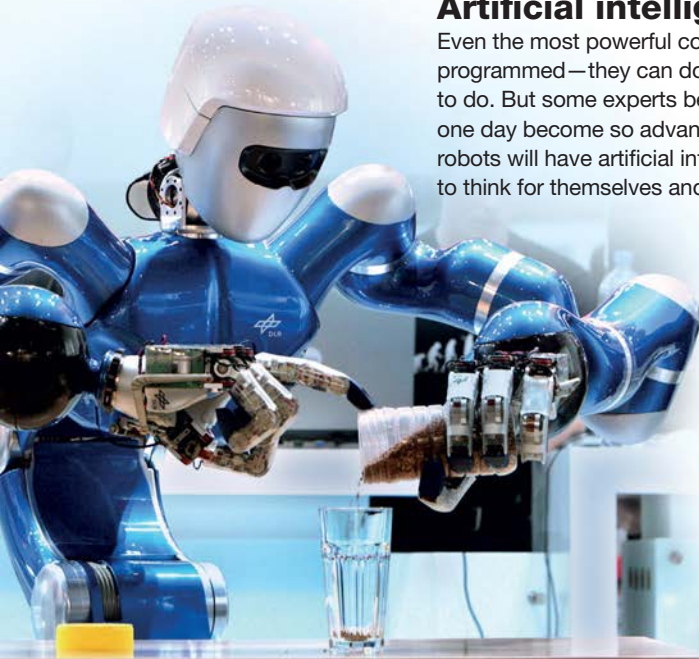
Modern computers are much smaller and millions of times more powerful than the earliest computers. Packed with microchips, they can process millions of instructions in the blink of an eye, allowing them to run applications, take pictures, operate phones, surf the Web, and play games all at the same time.

A tablet computer is operated by touching the screen



Artificial intelligence

Even the most powerful computers have to be programmed—they can do only what people tell them to do. But some experts believe that computers will one day become so advanced that computers and robots will have artificial intelligence—they will be able to think for themselves and learn from their mistakes.

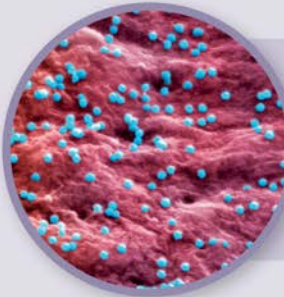


Humanoid (humanlike) robot Rollin' Justin preparing tea



The living world

Earth is the only place in the universe where life is known to exist. Millions of different kinds of life-form are found all over the planet. Some, such as bacteria, are too small to see with the naked eye, while others, such as trees, may be more than 300 ft (100 m) tall. Many habitats are incredibly rich in life—from lush tropical forests teeming with insects, mammals, and frogs to coral reefs on the seafloor that are packed with brightly colored fish, crustaceans, and tiny plankton.



WHAT IS LIFE?

Living things are organized structures that reproduce themselves. Viruses can only reproduce inside other living things, so they are not usually thought of as alive.

Types of living thing

Scientists divide the wide variety of life on Earth into different groups. The smallest group is the “species,” which are life-forms that are very similar and are able to breed with each other. The largest group is the “kingdom.” There are five kingdoms—fungi, bacteria, protists, plants, and animals.



Fungi

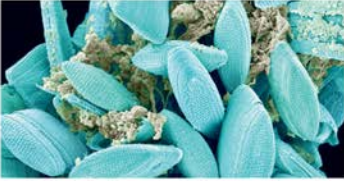
A group of living things called fungi feeds on dead or rotting animals and plants.

This kingdom includes mushrooms, molds, and yeast.



Bacteria

All living things are made up of microscopic units called cells. Tiny single-celled bacteria are the simplest form of life, and the most common. They are found all over the planet.



Protists

The protists are also single-celled life-forms. Their cells are more complex than bacteria and contain a nucleus as a control center. Many protists, such as algae, live together in large groups.

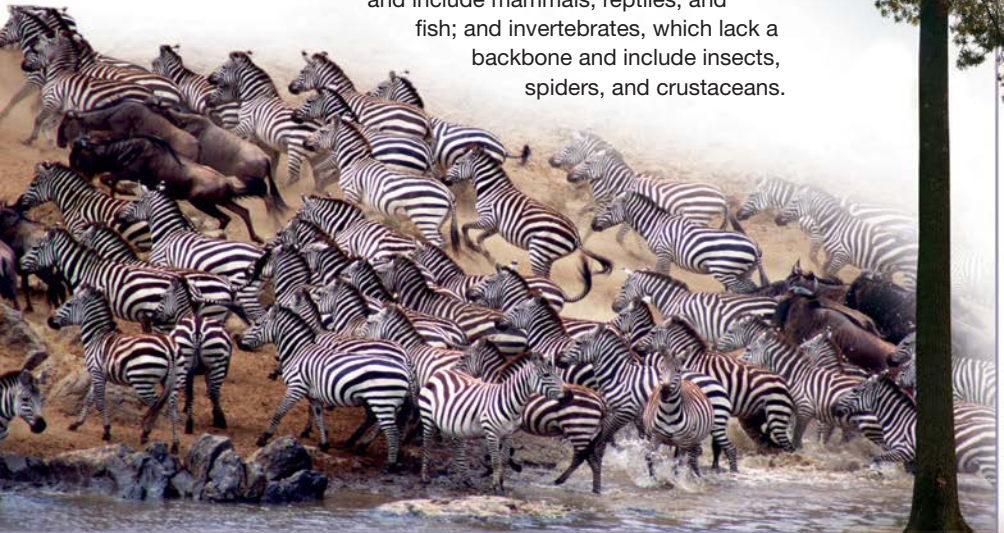
Plants

Members of the plant kingdom produce oxygen and are crucial to life on Earth. They make their own food using the energy of the Sun, and also provide food for both animals and fungi.

Animals

The animal kingdom is divided into two groups: vertebrates, which have a backbone and include mammals, reptiles, and fish; and invertebrates, which lack a backbone and include insects, spiders, and crustaceans.

Zebras and wildebeest are mammals, a kind of vertebrate



Classifying life

To study the wide range of life on Earth, scientists group together living things that have similar characteristics. There are different levels of groups, depending on how similar the life-forms are. The broadest level is a kingdom, such as animals. All animals are then divided into smaller and smaller groups until a single species is identified.

What is a species?

A species is a group of very similar living things that usually breed with one other. Each species is identified by a scientific name. The European larch tree has the scientific name *Larix decidua*. It belongs to a family of trees called Pinaceae, which all produce cones.



Class: Mammals

A class is a large group within a phylum. Mammals are warm-blooded vertebrates that feed their young on milk.



Phylum: Chordates

Within the animal kingdom are 35 phyla (plural of phylum). The phylum Chordates contains vertebrates—animals with a backbone.



Kingdom: Animals

The largest group is a kingdom. The animal kingdom contains all the animals in the world.



Start here

Species: *Canis lupis*

The gray wolf is the largest species in the family Canidae. Its scientific name is *Canis lupis*.

**Genus: *Canis***

Families contain different genera (plural of genus). The genus *Canis* contains 10 species, including wolves and domestic dogs.

**Family: Canidae**

Within the order of carnivores, the family Canidae contains all doglike mammals.

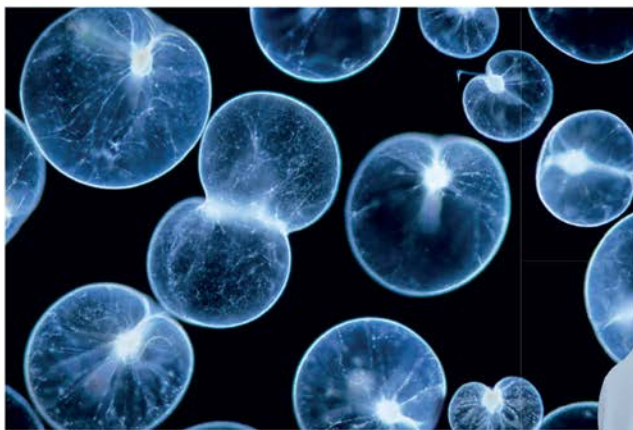
**Order: Carnivores**

A class is divided into orders. The order of carnivores contains mammals that eat meat.



Microlife

Bacteria and protists are single-celled organisms that can only be seen using a microscope. Bacteria are so small that 10,000 could fit on the head of a pin. Microlife is found all around us, and even inside us—there are 10 times as many bacteria in our bodies as there are cells!



Colony of *Noctiluca scintillans*, a sea-dwelling protist

Protists

These single-celled organisms are found anywhere there is water. Some, such as protozoa, move around and feed on other protists or on bacteria. Others, such as algae, make their own food using the energy of the Sun, like plants. Sometimes protists come together in huge colonies of billions of individual cells.



Good bacteria

Special bacteria in our stomachs help us to digest food. We can also use bacteria to make our food. The varied flavors of different kinds of cheese are produced with the help of bacteria.



Bad bacteria

Diseases such as cholera and tetanus are caused by harmful bacteria. We protect ourselves from these bacteria with vaccines. A vaccine is a safe dose of a less harmful form of the bacteria that make us sick. This makes our bodies produce antibodies, special proteins that will fight off the harmful forms if they ever appear in the future.

**Vaccines are
often given as injections**




Fungi

Fungi are life-forms such as mushrooms, yeasts, and molds that feed on plants and animals. They break down dead animals and plants, feeding on the nutrients. When the fungi die and are themselves eaten, this recycles the nutrients.

Mushrooms

The familiar mushrooms that grow in fields are just a small part of a fungus that grows underground. The mushrooms are the “fruiting body” of the fungus—they produce and scatter spores, which grow into new fungi. Some mushrooms are edible, but many are poisonous.

Mushrooms
release
spores into
the air from
their gills



After being eaten, mushrooms containing a chemical called psilocybin can cause hallucinations.



Yeast

Yeast is a tiny single-celled fungus. It feeds on sugars, producing carbon dioxide gas and alcohol. Yeast is used in the making of bread, and the carbon dioxide it produces makes the bread rise. The alcohol evaporates away as the bread is baked.

Yeast
mixture



Yeast helps
dough
to rise

Dough



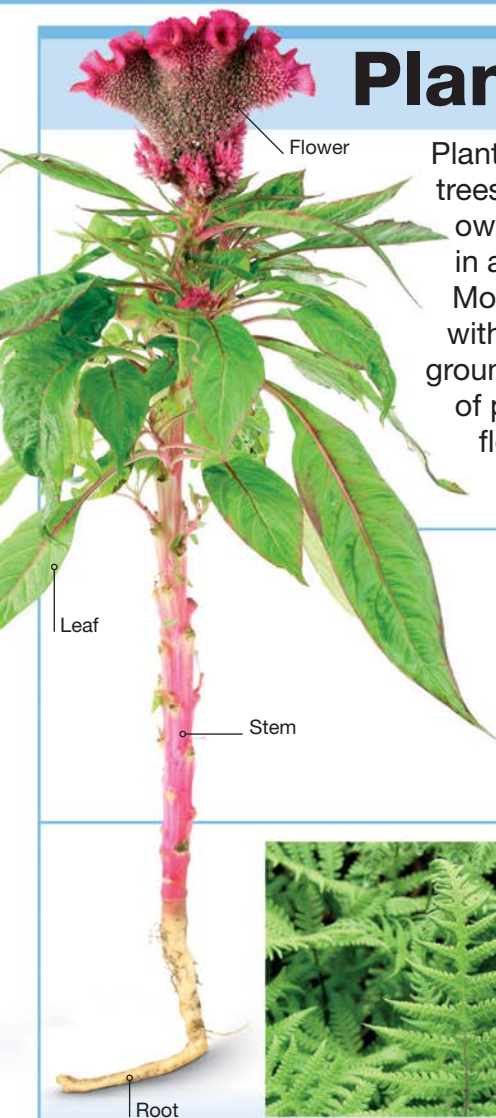
Molds

Molds are microscopic fungi that grow in thin strands called hyphae. They feed on dead plants and animals, making them rot. In medicine, a mold called *Penicillium* produces penicillin (see page 9), a valuable antibiotic for treating infections.

Mold grows
on stale food



Plants



Plants range in size from enormous trees to tiny mosses. They make their own food using the energy of the Sun in a process called photosynthesis. Most plants are fixed in one place, with roots that can go deep into the ground. There are many different groups of plant, including ferns, mosses, flowering plants, and conifers.

Plant parts

Every part of a plant has a job to do. The roots hold the plant in place and also take in water and nutrients from the soil. These are transferred to the rest of the plant through the stem, which also supports the leaves and flowers. Flowers produce pollen, seeds, and fruit, which are used for reproduction.



Ferns

Ferns do not make flowers, but reproduce by releasing spores into the air from the surface of special leaves. Ferns are often found in damp, shady woods, but also grow on rock faces, in wetlands, and even on the sides of trees.



Mosses

Mosses are small plants that are $\frac{1}{2}$ –4 in (1–10 cm) tall. They grow in clumps in damp, shady areas. Mosses are very simple plants with small leaves attached to wiry stems. They do not have roots or grow flowers.

Flowering plants

The biggest group of plants, flowering plants range from mighty oak trees to the tiny duckweed, which is just $\frac{1}{200}$ in (1 mm) long. They produce flowers, fruit, and seeds. The flowers often have brilliant colors and attract insects and birds, which carry pollen from one plant to another, fertilizing them.



Conifers

Many trees are flowering plants. Conifers do not produce flowers, however, but instead grow cones to store their seeds. These trees have needle-shaped leaves and mostly grow in huge forests in cold parts of the world.

Redwood trees can live for more than 3,000 years

GIANT REDWOODS

The largest tree species in the world is the giant redwood, which grows in California. Hyperion, the tallest redwood, stands 379 ft (115.5 m) tall. Chandelier tree is about 65 ft (20 m) shorter, but has a hole in its trunk that is 6 ft (1.8 m) wide—big enough to drive cars through.



How plants work

Unlike animals, plants make their own food. They do this during the daytime, when they use sunlight to provide energy for the food-making process, called photosynthesis. This takes place in the plant's leaves, using a green chemical called chlorophyll.

Surviving winter

In cool parts of the world, plants stop growing in the winter. Many trees no longer make their own food and so stop producing chlorophyll. Their leaves turn from green to brown before falling off. This allows them to save energy and stops them from losing water through the leaves.

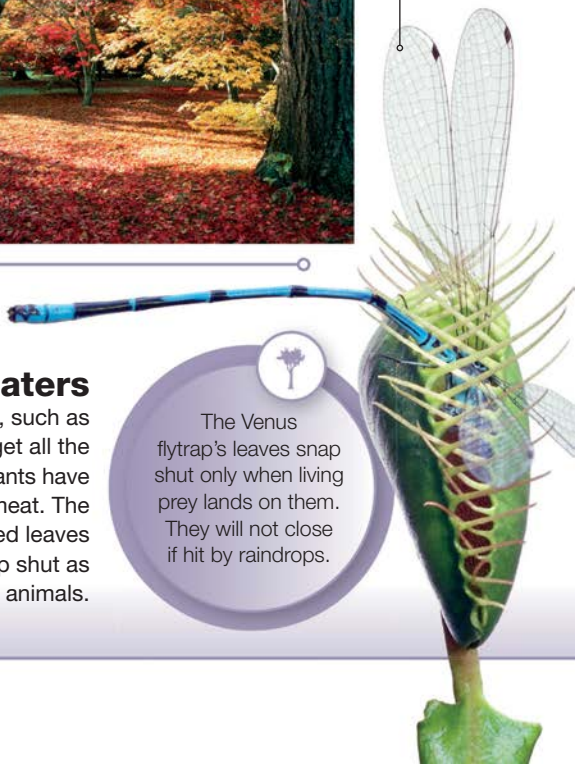


Dragonfly trapped inside a Venus flytrap

Meat-eaters

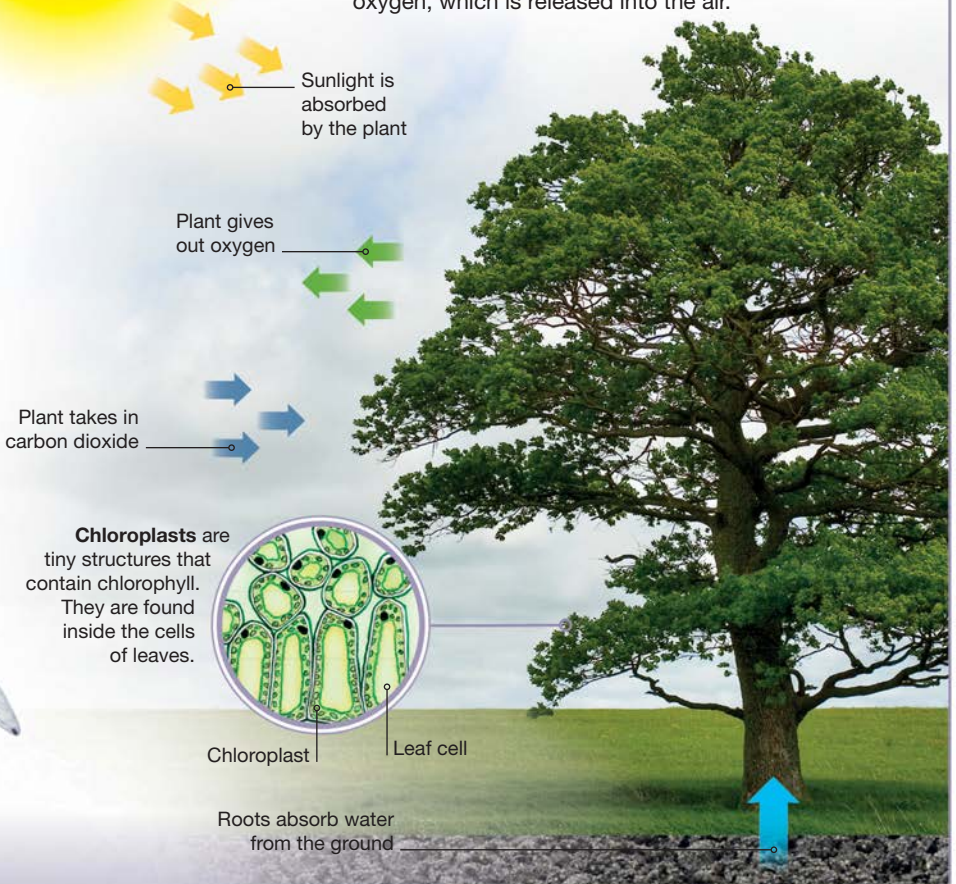
In places with poor soil, such as bogs, plants can find it hard to get all the nutrients they need. Carnivorous plants have solved this problem by eating meat. The Venus flytrap has specially adapted leaves that tempt insects in, then snap shut as soon as they land, trapping the animals.

The Venus flytrap's leaves snap shut only when living prey lands on them. They will not close if hit by raindrops.



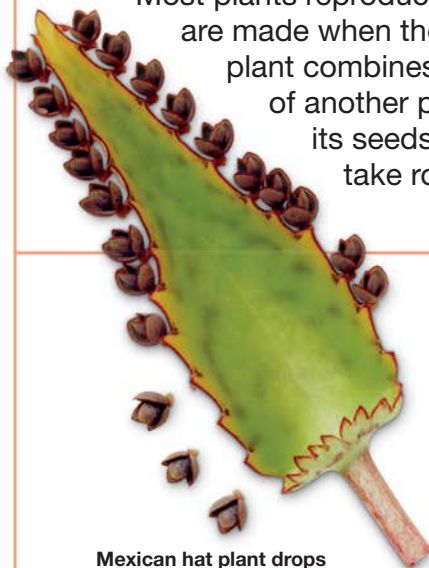
Photosynthesis

Leaves contain a special green chemical called chlorophyll. Chlorophyll is crucial to photosynthesis because it absorbs sunlight and uses the energy to make food from carbon dioxide in the air and water drawn up from the roots. This process produces oxygen, which is released into the air.



Flowers and seeds

Most plants reproduce using seeds. The seeds are made when the male part (pollen) of one plant combines with the female part (ovum) of another plant. The plant then scatters its seeds to new places, where they take root and grow into new plants.



Mexican hat plant drops buds to reproduce

Reproducing alone

Some plants, such as the Mexican hat plant, can reproduce without making seeds. They reproduce by growing buds that drop to the ground to grow into new plants. The new plants are identical to their parent. This process is called asexual reproduction.

Flowers

Most flowers make both pollen and ova (male and female parts) but cannot fertilize themselves (make their own seeds). Instead, the pollen from one flower is carried to other flowers on the bodies of insects and other animals, or by the wind. The pollen fertilizes the ova, which then develop into seeds.

Pollen gets stuck to a bee's body when it visits a flower to collect nectar



SCATTERING SEEDS



**Wind can
blow away seeds**



**Animals eat fruits and
disperse seeds**



**Seeds can be carried
away by water**



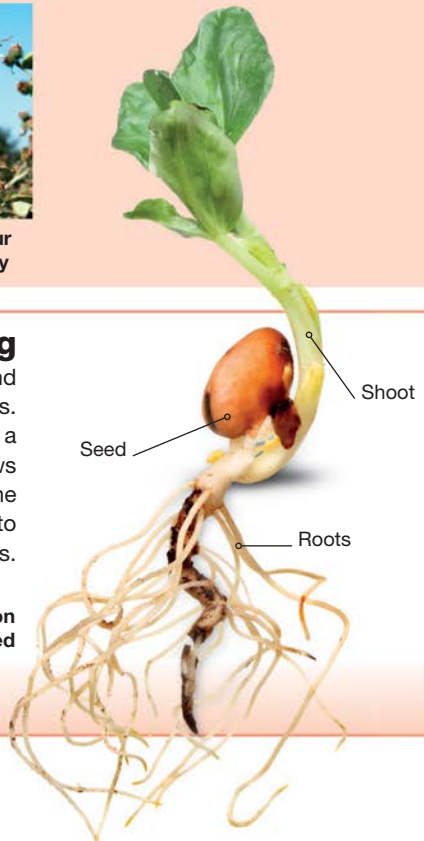
**Seeds may stick to fur
of animals passing by**

Plants spread their seeds in different ways. The flowers may grow into fruit, which are eaten by animals. The seeds then fall to the ground in the animals' droppings. Some plants make sticky seeds called burrs, which stick to animal fur. Others use the wind, rivers, or oceans to carry their seeds away.

Germinating

When a seed lands in the right place and conditions to grow into a new plant, it germinates. A shoot grows out of the seed and develops into a stem that grows upward and a root that grows downward. Food inside the seed gives it the energy to begin germinating, but it soon starts to make its own food in its leaves by photosynthesis.

**Germination
of a bean seed**



What is an animal?

Animals are living things that get their energy by feeding on other living things, including plants and other animals. Like plants, animals can respond and react to the world around them and communicate with each other. Most animals can also move around. Animals range from simple, tubelike sponges to complex human beings.

On the move

A few animals, such as sponges and clams, fix themselves in one place, but most need to move to find food or shelter. Sharks have powerful muscles and a sleek body shape that allows them to swim through the water quickly in search of prey.

A shark looking
for food



Feeding

All animals obtain energy by eating other living things. Herbivores eat plants, while carnivores eat other animals. Humans are omnivores, which are animals that eat both plants and other animals.



A cow is a herbivore



A crocodile is a carnivore



A bear is an omnivore



Communication

Animals communicate with each other in different ways: using sounds, chemicals, colors, or movements. Bees tell others in their hive where to find food using a special dance that shows which way to fly and how long it will take to get there.

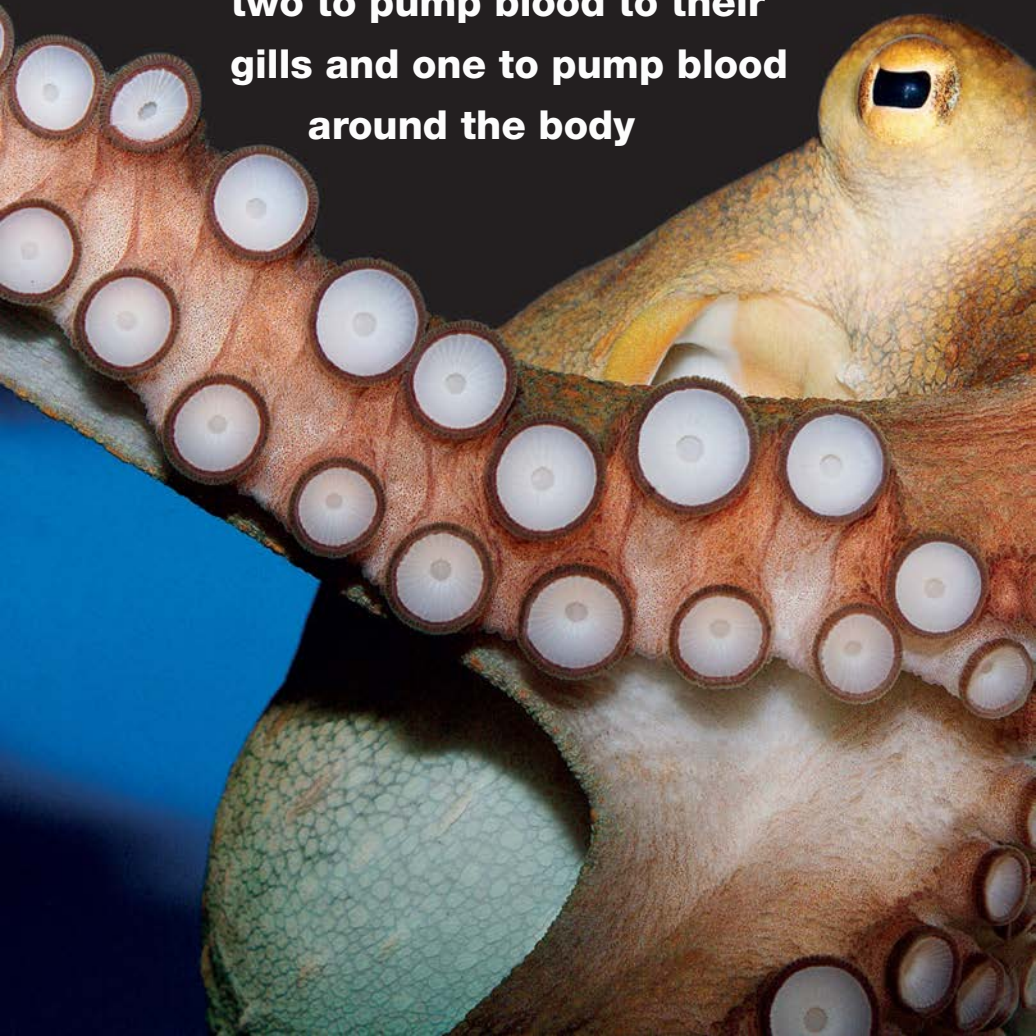
Responding and reacting

Animals have sense organs that tell them what is going on outside their bodies. For example, hairs on a spider's feet sense vibrations when prey gets trapped in its web. The spider then runs over and wraps its prey in silk.



Octopuses have **three hearts—**

**two to pump blood to their
gills and one to pump blood
around the body**



**ARMED AND DANGEROUS**

The octopus lives in holes and crevices on the ocean floor. It has eight arms, lined with suction cups for grabbing hold of its prey, which it then kills with poison from its beak. If it loses an arm, it can grow another one.

Types of animal

There are millions of animal species living on Earth. They are divided into two main groups: vertebrates, such as mammals and fish, which have a backbone; and invertebrates, such as insects and mollusks, which do not have a backbone.

VERTEBRATES

There are five main groups of vertebrates—amphibians, reptiles, fish, birds, and mammals. They all have internal skeletons but come in all shapes and sizes and live in very varied places.



Amphibians, such as frogs, lay their eggs in water and live both in the water and on land.



Reptiles, including alligators, have scaly skin and lay their eggs on land.



Fish, such as goldfish, spend all their lives in water, where they can breathe using gills.



Birds, including eagles, have feathers and many of them can fly.

Mammals are warm-blooded, have hairy skin, and feed their young on milk. They include tigers and humans.



INVERTEBRATES

About 97 percent of all known animal species are invertebrates. Insects and crustaceans have hard external skeletons and bodies made from segments. Starfish have simple bodies with bony plates just under the skin, while soft-bodied worms and squid do not have a skeleton at all.



Anthozoa, such as coral, fix themselves in one place and feed on algae or plankton.



Asterozoa, including starfish, are star-shaped, with arms growing out of a central disk.



Arachnids have eight legs, which have joints. They include spiders and scorpions.



Gastropods include snails and slugs. They move around using one muscular foot.



Malacostraca, such as crabs, have shells and heads made of five segments.

Insects have six legs, and many have two pairs of wings. They include butterflies and ants.



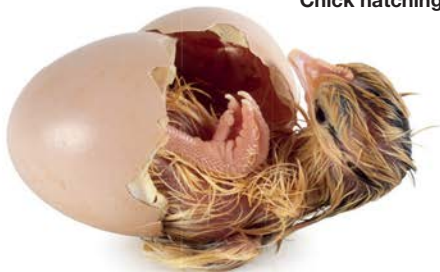
Animal reproduction

Animals use different methods to reproduce (have babies). The young of some species develop inside eggs laid by the mother, while other species give birth to live young. Some have many young, most of which will be eaten by predators, while others produce a few offspring that they look after carefully.

Laying eggs

Many animals lay eggs. Fish and amphibians lay their eggs in water. Their eggs do not have shells and are soft. Reptiles' eggs have leathery shells, while birds' eggs have hard shells. The shells protect the eggs and stop them from drying out. The baby reptiles or birds must break through the shells when they hatch.

Chick hatching



Eggs galore

Some animals, including many amphibians and fish, lay thousands of eggs. They leave the eggs, so the young have to fend for themselves as soon as they hatch. Most of the eggs and young will be eaten before they grow up, but a few of them survive to adulthood.

Mass of frogspawn
(frog's eggs)





Live young

Most mammals give birth to live young. The babies develop inside their mothers and receive all the nutrients they need to grow from their mother's blood. After they are born, the young feed on their mother's milk as they continue to grow.

Looking after babies

Some parents look after their young for months or even years after they are born. The parents bring food for the young and teach them the skills they will need to survive. Lions live in groups and help each other care for the young.

Lioness tends to her cubs



Food webs

Energy passes from one living thing to another in the form of food. Food webs show how living things feed on one another. At the bottom of a food web are plants, which make their own food using energy from the Sun. At the top are predators, which feed on other animals.



Deer are **primary consumers** that feed on grass



Lions are **secondary consumers** that feed on deer



Decomposers, such as dung beetles, feed on droppings and the bodies of dead animals



Grasses are **producers** that make their own food by photosynthesis

Food chain

Food webs are made up of many different food chains that have different levels. In a food chain, plants are called producers because they make their own food. Animals that eat plants are called primary consumers. Primary consumers are eaten by other animals called secondary consumers, or predators. When all living things die they become the food of organisms called decomposers.

Food pyramid

As we go up a food chain, the amount of food available decreases. This is because living things use most of the energy in the food they eat in respiration (see page 128). A food pyramid shows how energy is lost at each level. Near the top, there are just a few predators, while at the bottom there are many more producers.

The number of living things decreases as we move up the food pyramid

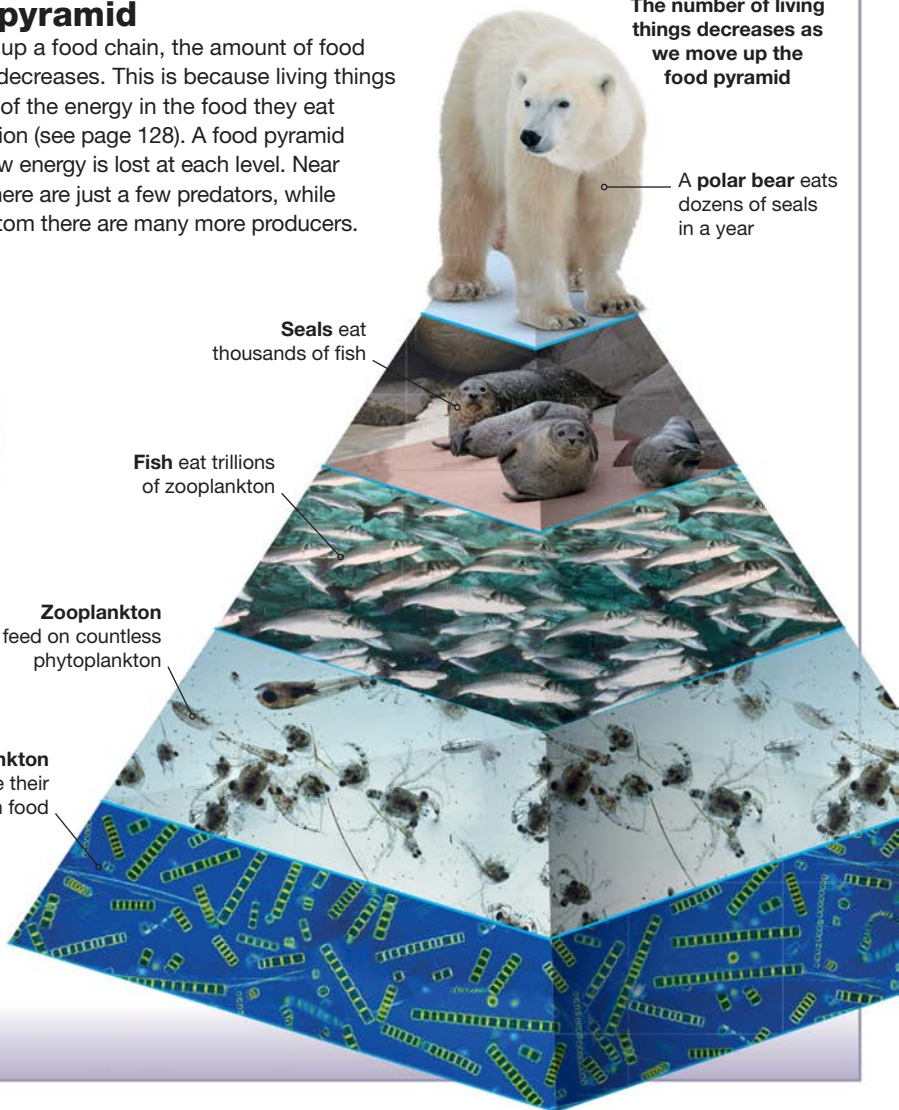
A polar bear eats dozens of seals in a year

Seals eat thousands of fish

Fish eat trillions of zooplankton

Zooplankton feed on countless phytoplankton

Phytoplankton make their own food

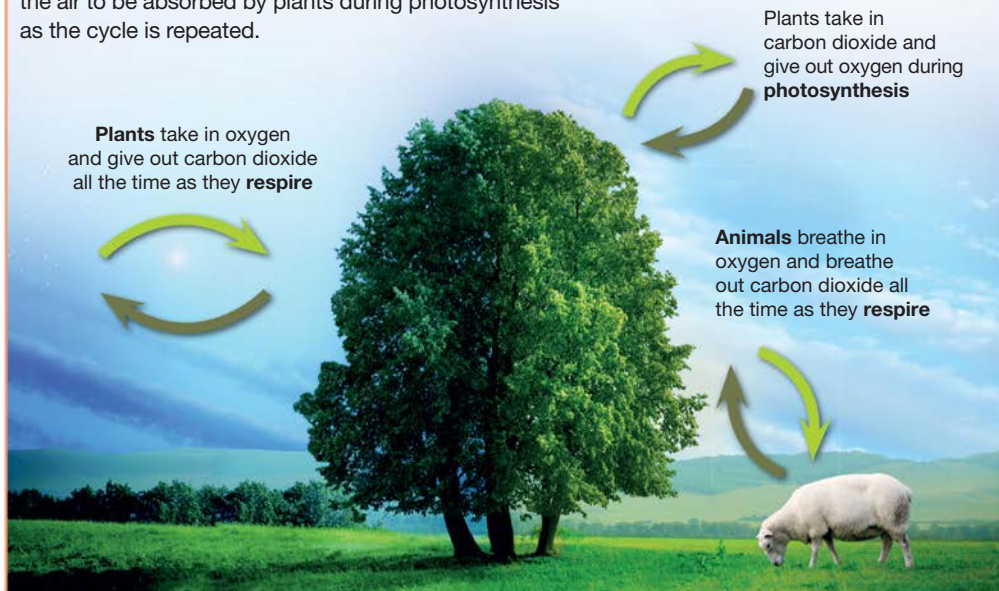


Cycles

Every living thing needs the elements oxygen and carbon to grow and make energy. These elements are constantly passing from the air into living things and back into the air again in cycles that are essential to life.

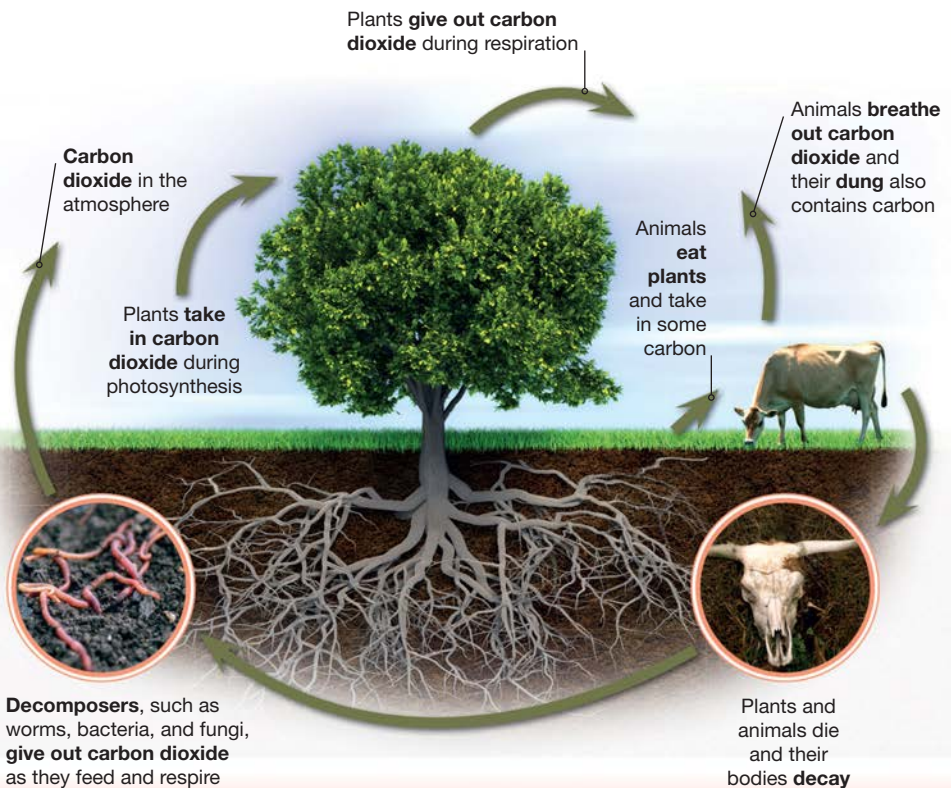
The oxygen cycle

Plants release oxygen into the air and absorb carbon dioxide from the air during photosynthesis (see page 115), which occurs only during the day. Both animals and plants use the oxygen in air to release energy in their bodies during a process called respiration. Respiration takes place all the time and produces carbon dioxide, which is released into the air to be absorbed by plants during photosynthesis as the cycle is repeated.



The carbon cycle

Carbon is taken in by living things in their food. It is released into the atmosphere during respiration and also when plants and animals die and decay. During photosynthesis, plants absorb carbon dioxide from the atmosphere so they can grow; the plants will then become new food for other living things.



Ecosystems

A community of organisms that lives in a particular environment is called an ecosystem. A single ecosystem might be as small as a pond or as large as a desert. Ecosystems vary hugely across the world, depending on conditions such as climate, the soil type, or whether there is salt- or freshwater.

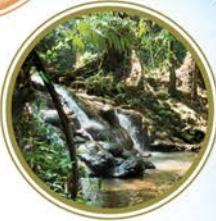
Tundra is found near polar regions and high up on mountains, where it is too cold for trees and so only small flowers and grasses grow. It covers one-fifth of the Earth's land.



Grasslands are wide areas that are baked brown by the Sun in summer and may freeze over in the winter. They are covered with grasses and have few trees.



Rain forests have a thick covering of trees and a rich variety of animal life.

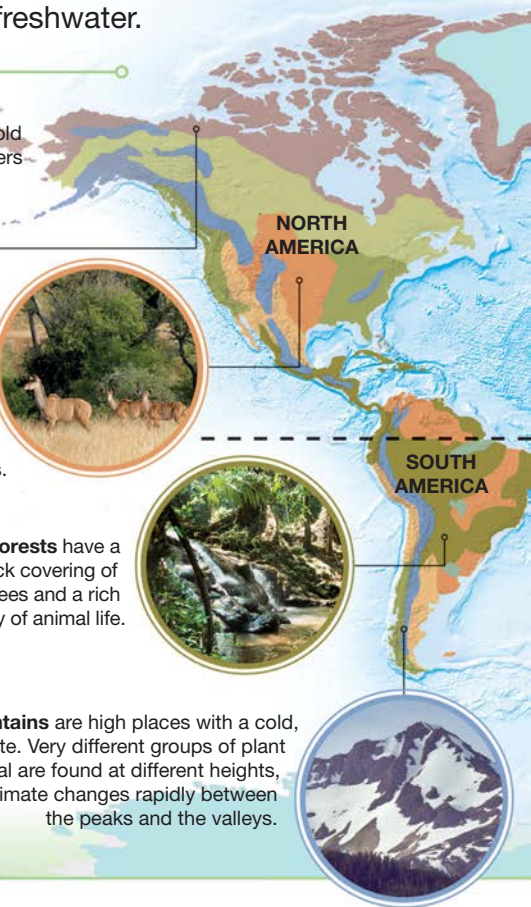


Mountains are high places with a cold, windy climate. Very different groups of plant and animal are found at different heights, as the climate changes rapidly between the peaks and the valleys.



KEY

-  Polar regions
-  Mountains
-  Rain forests
-  Coniferous forests
-  Temperate forests
-  Wetlands
-  Grasslands
-  Tundra
-  Deserts
-  Oceans



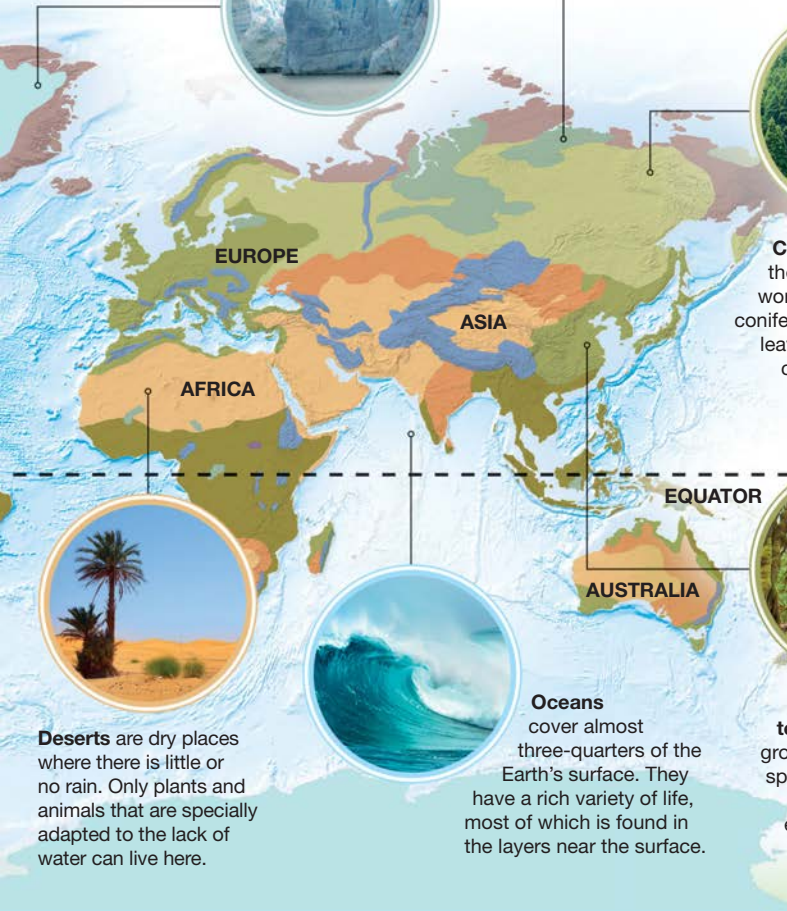
Polar regions are harsh areas near the North and South poles, where it is cold all year round. Snow and ice cover the ground and plant life is scarce.



Wetlands are areas of land that are flooded with water, such as swamps, marshes, and bogs. Plants adapted to wet conditions grow here.



Coniferous forests are the largest forests in the world and mostly contain conifer trees with needlelike leaves. They are found in cold, northern regions.



Deserts are dry places where there is little or no rain. Only plants and animals that are specially adapted to the lack of water can live here.



Oceans cover almost three-quarters of the Earth's surface. They have a rich variety of life, most of which is found in the layers near the surface.



Most trees in **temperate forests** grow new leaves every spring and drop them every fall to save energy during the cold winter.

**The Great Barrier Reef is 1,600 miles
(2,600 km) long and is so large that it can be**

seen from space



**TEEMING WITH LIFE**

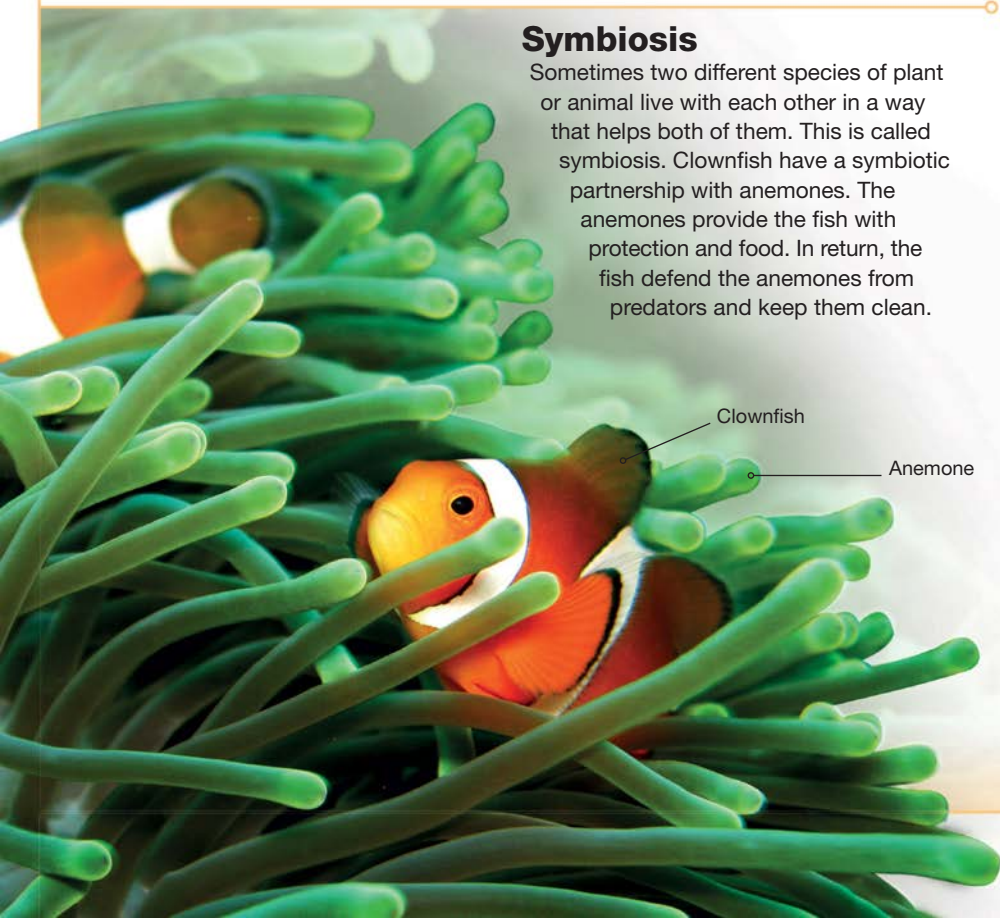
Coral reefs found in shallow, tropical waters are some of the most diverse habitats on Earth. Although they cover just 0.1 percent of the oceans, they are home to 25 percent of ocean species, including mollusks, sea snakes, crustaceans, and many kinds of colorful fish.


Survival

Living things have a wide range of methods to find food, keep themselves safe from predators, and survive changing conditions. These include living in large groups, moving from place to place, and even feeding off other animals.

Symbiosis

Sometimes two different species of plant or animal live with each other in a way that helps both of them. This is called symbiosis. Clownfish have a symbiotic partnership with anemones. The anemones provide the fish with protection and food. In return, the fish defend the anemones from predators and keep them clean.





Head louse as seen under a scanning electron microscope (SEM)

Parasites

Some living things, called parasites, live off others in a way that harms or even kills them. Head lice live in human hair and feed on our blood. They do not kill us, but they make our scalps very itchy.



Safety in numbers

Some animals travel together in large groups. This makes it harder for predators to catch them and may also help them catch their own food. Fish such as herring form huge groups, called schools, that may number hundreds of millions of individuals.



Migration

Animals may move from one region to another to find food or places to reproduce. This is called migration. Monarch butterflies migrate from Canada to Mexico every fall and back again every spring. Each migration takes three or four generations, so no individual insect survives the whole trip.

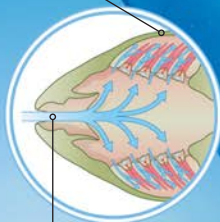
Living in water

Creatures that live in oceans or rivers are specially adapted to move, breathe, and feed in water. The oceans contain a wide variety of animal life, from tiny plankton to the gigantic blue whale.

Breathing under water

Fish, such as this stingray, and many other sea creatures breathe the oxygen dissolved in water using organs called gills. Some small creatures absorb oxygen through their skin without using gills.

Gill flap



Water flows in through the fish's mouth and over the **gills**, which absorb oxygen from the water



Hold your breath

Sea-dwelling reptiles, such as turtles, and mammals, such as whales, do not have gills. They have to come to the surface to breathe. Killer whales breathe through blowholes at the top of their heads. They can dive and hold their breath for up to 20 minutes.



Jet-propelled

Some invertebrates, such as an octopus, move through the water using jet propulsion. They suck water into their bodies and force it out behind them in a strong jet that pushes them forward.



Big creatures

Because the weight of their bodies is supported by the water, animals in the oceans can grow to enormous sizes. The biggest of them all, the blue whale, can grow to 100 ft (30 m) long and weigh over 200 tons (180 metric tons).



Flying

Animals that spend much of their time in the air fly using wings. Most flying insects have two pairs of wings attached to their bodies, while birds and bats fly using wings that are specially adapted arms.



Bats flying out of a cave

Bats' wings are made of skin



Beetle in flight

Insect wings are made of a substance called chitin



Geese in flight

Wings

For animals to fly, they need to produce an upward force called lift. They do this using their wings, which are a special shape called an aerofoil. They flap their wings to give them more lift, but once in the air, many birds can also fly without flapping.

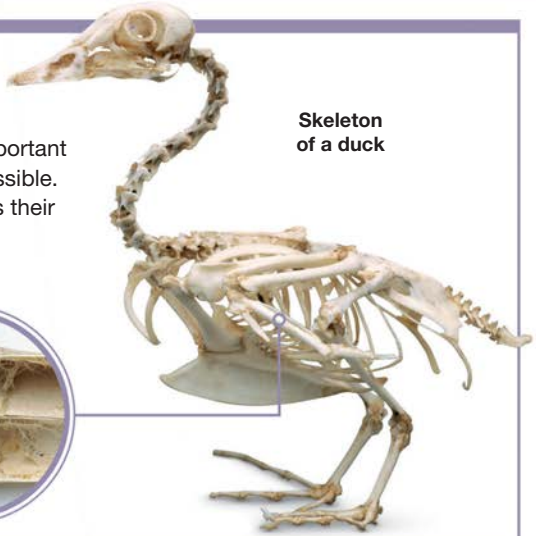
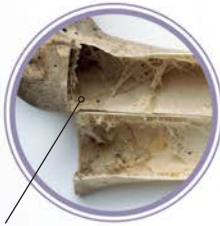
Hollow bones

Flying uses a lot of energy, so it is important for flying animals to be as light as possible. Birds' bones are hollow, which makes their skeletons very light.

Skeleton
of a duck



This cut-open bone reveals a hollow space inside



GLIDING

Some animals do not truly fly, but can glide long distances through the air. They use flat parts of their bodies like a parachute to slow their fall. Flying squirrels stretch out flaps of skin attached to their front and back legs to glide from one tree to another.

Birds' wings are made of feathers



Evolution

Over millions of years, living things change in response to differences in their environment. This is called evolution and it happens through a process called natural selection. Changes that are more likely to help a plant or animal survive are passed to future generations, but living things with changes that are not suited to survival die out.



Cactus stores water to survive in dry conditions

Adaptation

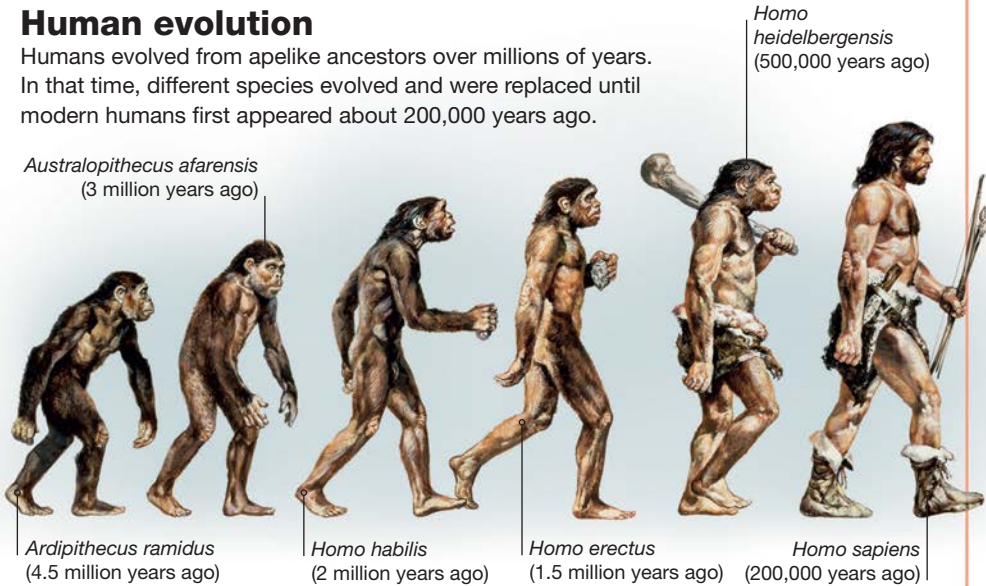
Natural selection has produced living things that are superbly adapted to life in the places where they live. Species that have adaptations better suited to an environment are more likely to survive than those that do not. Plants in deserts need to be able to save water, while animals in the Arctic need to survive the cold.



Polar bear has thick fur that helps in surviving the cold temperatures

Human evolution

Humans evolved from apelike ancestors over millions of years. In that time, different species evolved and were replaced until modern humans first appeared about 200,000 years ago.



Extinction

Changes to the environment, such as climate change, can lead to the disappearance of a whole species in a process called extinction. Extinction is an important part of the evolution process because it gives other species the chance to replace extinct ones.

The dinosaur *Corythosaurus* became extinct about 75 million years ago



Human influence

Human activity is changing environments across the world. We are damaging many natural habitats to meet our growing demands for food, energy, land, and other resources. We are also adding carbon dioxide to the atmosphere by burning fossil fuels such as oil, and this is changing our atmosphere and may be causing global warming.

Habitat destruction

Many forests have been cut down to make use of the wood and to clear land for agriculture. This destroys the forest habitats and also reduces the number of trees in the world. Trees take carbon dioxide from the air, so cutting them down increases the level of this gas in the atmosphere, contributing to dangerous climate change.

**Deforestation
in Peru**





Reducing the impact

There are many ways in which we can reduce the impact of human activity. By planting trees, we replace the ones that have been cut down. We can also reduce our impact by recycling (using again) anything we might normally throw away.

Conservation

The destruction of habitats has left many species of plant and animal endangered. This means that they are close to becoming extinct. Scientists and conservationists study how these species live and grow to see how they can be saved from extinction.

Scientists check on the health of a loggerhead turtle, an endangered species










The periodic table

Elements are pure chemicals that cannot be broken down further (see page 32). The atoms in different elements contain varied amounts of protons, neutrons, and electrons that affect their chemistry. Elements are arranged in a system called the periodic table according to their chemical and physical properties.

1 H Hydrogen	Alkali metals are very reactive		This is the atomic number of the element; it indicates the number of protons in each of its atoms						This is the unique symbol for the element	
3 Li Lithium	4 Be Beryllium	Alkaline earth metals are commonly found in rocks		12 Mg Magnesium						
11 Na Sodium	12 Mg Magnesium	The Lanthanide and Actinide series contain some important radioactive elements, such as uranium			Transition metals include many of the Earth's most common metals					
19 K Potassium	20 Ca Calcium	21 Sc Scandium	22 Ti Titanium	23 V Vanadium	24 Cr Chromium	25 Mn Manganese	26 Fe Iron	27 Co Cobalt		
37 Rb Rubidium	38 Sr Strontium	39 Y Yttrium	40 Zr Zirconium	41 Nb Niobium	42 Mo Molybdenum	43 Tc Technetium	44 Ru Ruthenium	45 Rh Rhodium		
55 Cs Cesium	56 Ba Barium	57–71 Lanthanide series	72 Hf Hafnium	73 Ta Tantalum	74 W Tungsten	75 Re Rhenium	76 Os Osmium	77 Ir Iridium		
87 Fr Francium	88 Ra Radium	89–103 Actinide series	104 Rf Rutherfordium	105 Db Dubnium	106 Sg Seaborgium	107 Bh Bohrium	108 Hs Hassium	109 Mt Meitnerium		

KEY

Elements with similar properties are grouped together on the periodic table. Scientists can tell what an element is like from its position in the table.

	Alkali metals		Actinide series		Noble gases
	Alkaline earth metals		Poor metals		Hydrogen
	Transition metals		Semimetals		Unknown chemistry
	Lanthanide series		Nonmetals		

Nonmetals
are generally dull
and break easily

Noble gases
almost never react
with other elements

Semimetals sit
between the metals
and nonmetals

Poor metals include many
important elements, such
as aluminum and lead

									2 He Helium
			5 B Boron	6 C Carbon	7 N Nitrogen	8 O Oxygen	9 F Fluorine	10 Ne Neon	
			13 Al Aluminum	14 Si Silicon	15 P Phosphorus	16 S Sulfur	17 Cl Chlorine	18 Ar Argon	
28 Ni Nickel	29 Cu Copper	30 Zn Zinc	31 Ga Gallium	32 Ge Germanium	33 As Arsenic	34 Se Selenium	35 Br Bromine	36 Kr Krypton	
46 Pd Palladium	47 Ag Silver	48 Cd Cadmium	49 In Indium	50 Sn Tin	51 Sb Antimony	52 Te Tellurium	53 I Iodine	54 Xe Xenon	
78 Pt Platinum	79 Au Gold	80 Hg Mercury	81 Tl Thallium	82 Pb Lead	83 Bi Bismuth	84 Po Polonium	85 At Astatine	86 Rn Radon	
110 Ds Darmstadtium	111 Rg Roentgenium	112 Cn Copernicium	113 Uut Ununtrium	114 Fl Flerovium	115 Uup Ununpentium	116 Lv Livermorium	117 Uus Ununseptium	118 Uuo Ununoctium	

Amazing science facts

MOST COMMON ELEMENTS

• In the universe:

Hydrogen—75%

Helium—23%

Other elements—2%

• In the Earth's crust:

Oxygen—47%

Silicon—28%

Aluminum—8%

Iron—5%

Calcium—4%

Sodium—3%

Potassium—3%

Magnesium—2%

• In the human body:

Oxygen—61%

Carbon—23%

Hydrogen—10%

Other elements—6%

RAREST ELEMENT


• **The rarest element** naturally occurring on Earth is francium. Only about 1 oz (25 g) of francium exists on the Earth at any one time. It is highly radioactive and turns into other elements just minutes after it has formed.

MASSIVE MOLECULES

• **The largest man-made molecule**, PG5, is made up of thousands of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen atoms bonded together. One molecule of PG5 has the same mass as 200 million hydrogen atoms.

• **The largest molecules found in space** are made of 60 carbon atoms joined together in patterns of hexagons and pentagons, like a soccer ball.

• **One strand of DNA**, the molecule that contains the code for life, can contain as many as 220 million pairs of instructions.



Of the 118 elements known to scientists, only 94 are found naturally on Earth.

SPEED RECORDS

• **The fastest-moving stuff** in the universe is light. A particle of light, called a photon, travels 983,571,056 ft (299,792,458 m) every second.

• **The fastest animal** is the peregrine falcon, which reaches speeds of 200 mph (325 kph) when it dives on its prey.

• **The fastest land animal** is the cheetah, which can run at 71 mph (114 kph).

• **The fastest fish** is the sailfish, which can swim at 68 mph (110 kph).

• **The fastest unpowered human** was skydiver Felix Baumgartner who, on October 14, 2012, reached a top speed of 834 mph (1,342 kph) when he jumped from a high-altitude balloon. He was the first human to travel faster than the speed of sound without a powered vehicle.

• **The fastest manned aircraft** was the Lockheed SR-71 Blackbird, which was clocked at 2,193 mph (3,530 kph). Spacecraft are even faster—the Space Shuttles have traveled at 17,400 mph (28,000 kph) when orbiting the Earth.

• **The fastest passenger train** is the JR-Maglev, an experimental Japanese train that has reached a top speed of 361 mph (581 kph) on test runs.

• **The fastest unmanned train** is a rocket sled. Powered by rockets, these can slide along rails at more than 6,200 mph (10,000 kph).

• **The water speed record** is 317 mph (511 kph). The record was set in 1978 by Ken Warby in a specially designed boat called *Spirit of Australia*.

ENERGY MATTERS

• **The largest power plant** in the world is the hydroelectric power plant at Three Gorges Dam in China. It produces enough electricity to power an area the size of the Netherlands.

• **The largest solar power plant** is Nevada Solar One in the Mojave Desert. It covers an area of more than 400 acres (162 hectares).

• **A single bolt of lightning** contains 5 billion joules of energy. If you could find a way to harness that energy, it would power a house for more than a month.

• **Just 5 percent of the energy** used by an incandescent lightbulb is used to make light. The other 95 percent produces heat. Energy-saving lightbulbs are four times more efficient.

• **The world's strongest magnet** is an electromagnet made by the Florida State University. It is 500,000 times stronger than the Earth's magnetic field.

Natural history facts

OLDEST LIFE


- **The oldest living thing** on Earth is the giant seagrass that grows in the Mediterranean Sea. Some of it may be 200,000 years old.

- **The longest-lived animal** is the clam, which can live for more than 400 years. Of animals that move around, the bowhead whale may live the longest—one whale was recorded to have lived for 211 years.

- **The oldest trees** on Earth are bristlecone pines, some of which are more than 5,000 years old.

- **The oldest group** of living things still around today are archaea (bacterial-like single-celled life-forms). They evolved more than 3 billion years ago, soon after the very first life-forms appeared on Earth.

- **The earliest animals** on Earth were sponges that lived in the oceans more than 700 million years ago. The first land plants appeared 425 million years ago. Dinosaurs appeared 230 million years ago.



Scientists think there are about 8.7 million species of living thing on Earth. About 90 percent of them have yet to be discovered!

- Spores of **rod-shaped bacteria that are 250 million years old** have been brought back to life by scientists.

- **Humans** first evolved in Africa about 200,000 years ago. They left Africa to spread across the world about 90,000 years ago.

- **Dinosaurs** were once thought to have died out 66 million years ago. But scientists now think that birds are their direct descendants and should be thought of as living dinosaurs, so the dinosaurs really did not die out at all.

BIG AND SMALL

- **The biggest animal** that has ever lived on Earth is the blue whale, a mammal that can grow up to 100 ft (30 m) and weigh 200 tons (180 metric tons). Possibly the **smallest animal** is the tardigrade, or water bear. This invertebrate can be just $\frac{1}{200}$ in (0.1 mm) long.

- The **biggest fish** is the whale shark, which can grow to 60 ft (18 m). The **smallest fish** is *Paedocypris progenetica*, which is just $\frac{3}{10}$ in (7.9 mm) long.

- The **heaviest bird** is the ostrich, weighing up to 345 lb (156 kg), which is too heavy to fly. The **heaviest flying bird** is the great bustard, which weighs 46 lb (21 kg). The **lightest bird** is the bee hummingbird, which weighs just $\frac{1}{10}$ oz (2 g).

- The **largest insect** in the world is the giant weta, which weighs $2\frac{1}{2}$ oz (71 g). The **smallest insect** is the parasitic wasp *Dicopomorpha echmepterygis*, which is less than $\frac{1}{100}$ in (0.2 mm) long.

- The **largest spider** is the goliath birdeater tarantula, with a leg span of 12 in (30 cm). The **smallest spider** is *Patu marplei*, measuring $\frac{17}{1000}$ in (0.43 mm)—the size of the period at the end of this sentence.

- The **largest reptile**, the Nile crocodile, grows up to 20 ft (6 m) long. The **smallest reptile**, a dwarf chameleon, is about 1 in (28 mm) long.

- The **biggest amphibian** is the Chinese giant salamander; it can grow up to 6 ft (1.8 m) long. The **smallest amphibian** is *Paedophryne amauensis*, a tiny frog from Papua, New Guinea. At $\frac{1}{4}$ in (7 mm) long, it is also the world's smallest vertebrate.

- The **smallest mammal** is the hog-nosed bat, also called the bumblebee bat, which weighs just $\frac{1}{10}$ oz (2 g).

EXTINCT GIANTS

- The **giant moa** was the tallest bird ever, standing 12 ft (3.6 m) tall. It lived in New Zealand and became extinct about 500 years ago due to hunting by humans.

- The **South American short-faced bear**, which lived about 1 million years ago, weighed 1.7 tons (1.5 metric tons) and stood more than 11 ft (3.4 m) tall when standing on its hind legs. It was twice the size of a polar bear.

- The **steppe mammoth** stood 13 ft (4 m) tall. Its tusks could grow to more than 16 ft (5 m) long. It lived in Siberia 500,000 years ago.

- *Josephoartigasia monesi* was a giant rodent that lived in South America 2 million years ago. It was the size of a small car, measuring 10 ft (3 m) long and weighing about 1 ton.

- *Argentinosaurus* was one of the largest dinosaurs, measuring 100 ft (30 m) from head to tail and weighing more than 77 tons (70 metric tons). It laid eggs the size of soccer balls.

- *Meganeura* was a giant dragonflylike insect that lived 300 million years ago. It had a wingspan of more than 100 ft (60 cm).

Glossary

Acceleration A change in an object's velocity, caused by a force acting upon it.

Amplitude A measure of the height of an energy wave. Loud sounds are made of sound waves with a large amplitude.

Atmosphere A layer of gases that surrounds a planet such as the Earth.

Atom The smallest particle of a chemical element.

Bacteria Tiny single-celled organisms found all over the Earth.

Carnivore An animal, such as a shark, lion, or crocodile, that eats only meat.

Cell The smallest unit of a life-form. Organisms can be single-celled or multicelled.

Circuit A continuous loop around which an electrical current can flow.

Compound A substance made from two or more elements.

Condense To change state from a gas into a liquid.

Conductor A substance that allows electricity to flow through it easily.

Current A flow of electricity.

Decomposition A change that takes place in dead bodies in which complex substances break down into simpler chemicals.

DNA A special substance found in the cells of all living things. The DNA contains instructions that tell the cells how to behave.

Ecosystem A distinct region, such as a forest or an ocean, that contains living organisms.

Electromagnet A powerful magnet made using electricity.

Electron A particle that makes up part of an atom. An electron has a negative charge.

Element A pure substance, such as gold, hydrogen, or oxygen, that is made up of only one kind of atom. There are 118 different elements.

Environment The surroundings in which an organism lives, including

other organisms, together with conditions such as temperature and light.

Evaporation The change in state of a substance from a liquid to a gas.

Evolution The process by which species change into other species over very long periods. Evolution is the way life developed on Earth.

Fertilization The process by which male and female parts of an animal or plant come together to reproduce.

Force A push or a pull that changes an object's shape or velocity.

Fossil fuel Fuel such as coal and oil that is made from the remains of living things.

Friction A force caused by rubbing one thing against another. Friction slows down movement and produces heat.

Fulcrum The point around which a lever rotates.

Fungus A kind of organism that feeds on the bodies of living or dead plants and animals.

Gas A state of matter in which molecules are spread out and moving rapidly. Most gases are invisible.

Gear A simple machine that moves a force from one place to another and changes the size of the force.

Germination The process by which a seed begins to grow into a new plant.

Gills Parts of a fish that absorb oxygen dissolved in the water.

Gravity A force that pulls all objects with mass towards each other.

Herbivore An animal, such as a cow, elephant, or deer, that eats only plants.

Hypothesis A theory about how things work. Scientists test their hypotheses by conducting experiments.

Inclined plane A simple machine used to lift or lower heavy objects using less effort.

Infrared A form of invisible radiation given off as heat by objects.

Insulator A substance that does not allow electrical current or heat to pass through it easily.

Invertebrate An animal that does not have a backbone.

Ion An atom or molecule that contains an uneven number of protons and electrons. An ion either has positive or negative charge.

Lever A simple machine that makes a force or a movement larger. Levers can be used to move heavy objects.

Liquid A state of matter in which a substance has a fixed volume but no fixed shape.

Mass The amount of matter within an object.

Matter Any physical substance.

Metabolism The chemical process by which living things make the substances they need to grow and stay healthy.

Migration A journey made by animals from one place to another in search of food or in order to reproduce.

Molecule A group of atoms that have bonded together to make a new substance. Water is made of molecules containing hydrogen and oxygen.

Neutron A particle found in the nucleus of an atom. It does not have a charge.

Nucleus The center of an atom, made of neutrons and protons. Also used to mean a part of a cell that contains most of the cell's DNA.

Nutrient A chemical that a plant or animal needs to stay healthy.

Omnivore An animal that eats both meat and plants.

Orbit The path of an object that follows another object. The Moon makes an orbit around the Earth.

Organism An individual living thing, such as a plant or animal.

Parasite An organism that lives on another organism and harms it.

Particle A very small bit of matter, such as an atom, a molecule, or an electron.

Photosynthesis A process that takes place in the leaves of plants in which the energy of the Sun is used to make sugars they need for food.

Plasma A state of matter similar to a gas and containing charged ions.

Precipitation Water that falls to the Earth's surface from the atmosphere. It can be in the form of rain, hail, or snow.

Predator An animal that hunts other animals for food.

Prey An animal that is hunted by other animals for food.

Protist A simple form of single-celled life.

Proton A particle found in an atom's nucleus. A proton has a positive charge.

Pulley A simple machine used to increase pulling forces.

Radiation A form of energy that travels in the form of electromagnetic waves, such as light and X-rays.

Respiration A chemical process in which food is broken down to release its energy.

Satellite An object that orbits another object. The Moon is the Earth's only natural satellite.

Seed The fertilized egg of a plant, usually surrounded by a store of food to help it grow.

Solid A state of matter in which the molecules are tightly packed together and cannot move freely.

Solution A liquid with another substance dissolved in it.

Species A group of organisms that are very similar and able to breed with one another.

Spore A fertilized cell made by fungi that grows into a new organism.

Static electricity A form of electricity in which electric charge builds up in one place.

Temperature A measure of how hot a substance is.

Ultraviolet A form of radiation found in sunlight. Humans cannot see ultraviolet, but some insects and birds can.

Velocity The speed and direction of movement of an object.

Vertebrate An animal that has a backbone.

Wedge A simple machine that is used to separate objects or to hold them in place.

Index

A

acceleration 88–89
acids 44–45
adaptation 140
agriculture 5, 6
air, heating/cooling 79, 80
air resistance 86–87
aircraft 86–87, 89, 147
alcohol 109
algae 103, 106
alkali metals 32, 144
alkaline earth metals 33, 144
alkalis 44
alloys 35, 37
alpha particles 76–77
amphibians 122, 124, 149
amplitude 82, 83
animals 5, 82, 103–05, 117–43
 endangered 143
 evolution 140–41
 flying 138–39
 marine 132–33, 136–37
 reproduction 124
 survival 134–35
 types of 122–23
antibiotics 9
antibodies 107
arachnids 119, 123, 149
argon 34
artificial intelligence 99
asexual reproduction 116
atmosphere 20, 142
atmospheric gases 35
atomic number 32, 44
atomic power 54–55
atoms 4, 15, 26–35
 splitting 28, 54
attraction, magnetic 62
axles 93, 95

B

babies 124–25
bacteria 5, 102, 106–07, 148
balanced forces 85
barium 33
bases 44–45
bats 138
batteries 58, 59
Becquerel, Henri 76
bees 116, 119
bending, light 73
Benz, Karl 8
Berners Lee, Tim 9
beta particles 76–77
birds 5, 122, 138–39, 146, 149
black holes 84
boiling 18
bones 33, 139
boring drills 97
brakes 86
bread 109
bronze 35, 37
burning 40

C

calcium 33, 44
cameras 75
carbon 26–27, 31
carbon cycle 129
carbon dioxide 109, 115,
 128–29, 142
CarbonX 25
carnivores 105, 114, 119
cars 8, 88–89, 97
catalysts 40
caustic substances 44
caves 21
cells 102, 106

CERN (Switzerland) 27
chain reactions 54
chemical bonding 30–31
chemical energy 50,
 51, 52–53
chemical reactions 36, 38–45
chlorophyll 114, 115
chloroplasts 115
Chordates 104–05
circuits 59, 98
class 104–05
cleaning products 44, 45
clouds 20, 21
combustion 24
communication 118–19
compasses 62–63, 64, 65
compounds 33, 36–37
compression 17
computers 9, 49, 98–99
condensation 19, 20
conductors 25, 81
conifers 111, 112–13, 131
conservation 53, 143
consumers 126–27
convection 80
cooking 38
cooling 78
copper 33, 35, 37
coral reefs 123, 132–33
corrosion 39
corrosive substances 44
Crab Nebula 70–71
cranes 96
crustaceans 103, 123
Curie, Marie 8
current electricity 57
cycles 128–29

D

Darwin, Charles 8
decay 129
deceleration 89

decibels 83
 decomposers 126, 129
 deforestation 142
 density 22
 deserts 131
 diamonds 23, 31
 digestion 107
 dinosaurs 141, 148, 149
 diseases 107
 dissolving 24
 distillation 37
 DNA 146
 drills 97

E

Earth
 crust 33
 gravity 84
 life on 100–43
 magnetic field 65
 echoes 82
 ecosystems 5, 130–31
 eggs 124
 Einstein, Albert 8
 elasticity 23
 electric light 61, 75
 electric motors 64
 electrical conductors/
 insulators 25
 electrical energy 49
 electricity 56–61
 electromagnetic radiation
 68–72, 76
 electromagnetism 66–69, 147
 electrons 26–29, 30, 32, 56, 144
 elements 32–35, 144–46
 EM spectrum 68–69
 endothermic reactions 41
 energy 4, 8, 49–83, 147
 energy chain 52–53
 energy resources 52
 engines 7, 86–89

environment 140, 142–43
 evaporation 18, 20, 37
 everyday science 10–11
 evolution 8, 140–41
 exothermic reactions 40, 42–43
 expansion 79
 experiments 5
 extinction 141, 143, 149
 eyesight 74

F

families 105
 fatty acids 45
 feeding 5, 118–19, 126–27
 ferns 110
 ferromagnetic materials 62
 fertilization 116
 filtration 37
 fireworks 7, 42–43
 fish 103, 118, 122, 124,
 132–36, 147
 fission 54–55
 flammability 24–25
 Fleming, Alexander 9
 flight 138–39
 flowering plants 110, 111, 116
 food webs 126–27
 forces 4, 49, 84–97
 and machines 92–97
 and movement 88–89
 magnetism 62–69, 149
 forests 130, 131, 142–43
 formulas, chemical 30
 fossil fuels 52, 53, 142
 freezing 19, 21
 frequency 82
 friction 86–87
 fruit 110, 117
 fuels 49, 52
 fulcrum 94
 fungi 5, 102, 108–09
 fusion 54, 55

G

gamma radiation 69, 71, 76–77
 gases 17, 34, 35, 145
 gastropods 123
 gears 93, 97
 Geiger counters 77
 genus 105
 germination 117
 Giant Redwoods 112–13
 gills 136
 glass 46
 gliding 139
 global warming 142
 gold 32, 33
 graphite 31
 grasslands 130
 gravity 7, 22, 49, 84
 Great Barrier Reef 132–33
 groundwater 21
 groups, living in 135
 gunpowder 7, 42
 Gutenberg, Johannes 7

H

habitats 101, 130–31, 142
 hallucinations 108
 hang gliders 80
 hardness 23
 hearing 82–83
 heart 120
 heat 78–81, 86
 heat conductors 25
 helium 27, 34, 55
 herbivores 119
 high-frequency 82
 hot-air balloons 17, 79
 human impact 142–43
 hydroelectricity 58, 147
 hydrogen 15, 36, 55
 hyphae 109
 hypotheses 5

I

ice packs 41
 ignition 24
 inclined planes 92
 Industrial Revolution 7
 infrared 68, 78, 80
 inhibitors 40
 insects 103, 119, 123, 135,
 138, 149
 insulators 25, 81
 International Space Station
 12–13
 Internet 9
 inventions 6–9
 invertebrates 103, 123, 137
 ions 27
 iron 33
 Iron Age 6

JKL

jet engines 86–87, 89
 Kilby, James 9
 kinetic energy 49, 50, 52, 53
 kingdoms 102–03, 104
 krypton 34
 Large Hadron Collider (CERN) 27
 lava 14, 15
 levers 94, 96, 97
 life science 5, 100–43, 148–49
 lifting 67, 92, 94–95, 96
 light 4, 72–75
 speed of 73, 146
 visible 69, 72
 light energy 52
 lightning 56, 147
 limestone 33
 liquids 16, 18, 19, 24
 lithium 32
 litmus paper 45
 live young 125
 low-frequency 82

M

machines
 complex 96–97
 simple 92–95
 magnesium 27, 33
 magnetic fields 62–63
 magnetism 62–69, 149
 malleability 22
 mammals 103, 104–05, 119,
 122, 125, 137, 148–49
 man-made materials 41
 marine life 132–33, 136–37
 mass 22
 materials 4, 15, 22–25, 41, 46–47
 matter 8, 14–25
 medicine 8–9, 11, 77, 109
 melting 15, 19, 21, 38
 metals 6, 25, 32–33, 35, 81
 microchips 9, 98–99
 microlife 106–07
 microwaves 68
 migration 135
 minerals 16–17, 23
 mixtures 36–37
 Mohs scale 23
 molds 102, 109
 molecules 30–31, 146
 mosses 111
 motion, laws of 7, 88–89
 motors 64
 mountains 130
 movement 84, 86–89
 mushrooms 102, 108

NO

natural selection 8, 140
 neon 34
 neutrons 26–27, 32, 54, 76, 144
 Newton, Sir Isaac 7, 88
 nitrogen 35
 noble gases 34, 145

nonmetals 35
 nonflammable materials 24–25
 nuclear energy 52, 54–55, 58
 nucleus 26, 54, 76
 nutrients 108, 114
 oceans 131–33, 136–37
 octopuses 120–21, 137
 oil refineries 37
 omnivores 119
 orbit 12, 84
 orders 105
 organisms 106, 130
 ovum 116
 oxygen 30, 35, 36, 103, 115, 128

P

parasites 135
 particle accelerator 27
 particles 16–17, 19, 26–27
 penicillin 9, 109
 periodic table 32, 144–45
 PET scanners 77
 pH scale 45
 phosphorus 35
 photosynthesis 52, 110, 114–15,
 117, 126, 128–29
 phylum 104–05
 planets 4, 84
 plants 5, 103, 110–17, 126–29,
 140
 plasma 17
 plasticity 22
 plutonium 55
 polar regions 131
 poles, magnetic 62–63
 pollen 110, 116
 polonium 8
 polymerization 41
 poor metals 35, 145
 potential energy 49, 51, 53
 power plants 55, 58, 147
 predators 126, 127, 134–35

preservatives 40
 pressure 85
 prey 82, 118–19, 126–27
 processing materials 47
 producers 126–27
 properties 22–25, 32
 protists 103, 106
 protons 26–27, 32, 56, 76, 144
 pulleys 95, 96

R

radiation 68–72, 76–77, 80
 radio waves 68
 radioactivity 8, 76–77
 radium 8, 33
 radon 34
 rain 20, 21
 rain forests 130
 reactions 38–45
 recycling 47, 108–09, 143
 reflection 73
 refraction 73
 relativity, theory of 8
 reproduction 110, 116–17,
 124–25
 reptiles 103, 119, 122, 124, 149
 repulsion, magnetic 62
 respiration 128–29, 136–37
 rivers 21
 robots 99
 rockets 84
 rocks 15, 16–17
 Röntgen, Wilhelm 8
 roots 110, 115, 117
 rusting 39

S

salts 44, 45
 scientists 5
 screws 92, 97
 seeds 110, 116–17

semimetals 35, 145
 sense organs 119
 shadows 72
 silicon 35
 skeletons 122, 123
 smelting 6
 snow 20, 21
 soap 45
 sodium 32, 44
 solar power 52, 53, 147
 solids 16, 18, 19
 solubility 24
 solutions 36
 solvents 24, 36
 sound 3, 67, 82–83
 space 8, 12–13, 84, 88
 speakers 67
 species 102, 104–05
 speed 86–89, 146–47
 spores 108, 110
 stars 4, 70–71
 static electricity 57
 steam 7, 18, 58
 storms 56, 90–91, 147
 streamlined shapes 86–87
 subatomic particles 26, 27, 29
 sulfur 30
 Sun 55, 72, 74, 80, 126
 survival 134–35
 suspension bridges 85
 suspensions 36
 symbiosis 134

T

talc 23
 telescopes 74
 temperate forests 131
 temperatures 79
 thermal conductors/insulators
 25, 81
 thermal springs 18
 thermometers 79

timber 83
 tin 35, 37
 tornadoes 90–91
 trains, magnetic 64, 147
 transistors 98
 transition metals 33, 144–45
 transparency 72
 trees 111–15, 130, 131,
 142–43, 148
 tundra 130
 turbines 58

UV

ultraviolet 69
 universe 4, 15, 49, 101
 uranium 54, 55
 vaccinations 107
 velocity 88–89
 Venus flytrap 114
 vertebrates 103, 122
 viruses 101
 viscosity 16
 volume 16

WXY

water 24, 36, 136–37
 water cycle 20–21
 water vapor 18, 19, 20
 waterproof clothing 41
 waves 68–69, 82–83
 wedges 92, 96, 97
 weight 22
 wetlands 131
 wheels 6, 93, 97
 wind power 52, 53
 wind speeds 90–91
 wings 138–39
 World Wide Web 9
 X-rays 8, 69
 xenon 34
 yeast 102, 109

Acknowledgments

Dorling Kindersley would like to thank: Monica Byles for proofreading, Helen Peters for indexing, and Dharendra Singh for design assistance.

The publisher would like to thank the following for their kind permission to reproduce their photographs:

(Key: a-above; b-below/bottom; c-center; f-far; l-left; r-right; t-top)

2–3 **Dreamstime.com**: Olivier Le Queinec. 4 **Corbis**: Matthias Kulka (br). 5 **Dreamstime.com**: Epstefanov (t). **Fotolia**: tacna (br). 6 **Corbis**: Bettmann (clb). **Dorling Kindersley**: University Museum of Archaeology and Anthropology, Cambridge (crb, br). 7 **Dreamstime.com**: Erzetic (tr); Georgios Kollidas (br). 8 **Corbis**: Underwood & Underwood (ca). 9 **Dreamstime.com**: Andrienclais (bc); Drserg (tr). **Getty Images**: P. Barber / Custom Medical Stock Photo (tl). 10 **Dreamstime.com**: Radu Razvan Gheorghe. 11 **Corbis**: Auslöser (b). **Fotolia**: Gennadiy Poznyakov (tl). 12–13 **NASA**. 14 **Dreamstime.com**: Jason Yoder. 16 **Fotolia**: guy (bl). 18 **Dreamstime.com**: Dmitry Pichugin (b). 19 **Corbis**: Brandon Tabolo / Design Pics (tr). 21 **Dreamstime.com**: Dan Talson (br). 22 **Dreamstime.com**: Vadim Ponomarenko (bl). 23 **Corbis**: Christian Hacker / beyond (br). 25 **Dreamstime.com**: Konstantin Kirillov (bl). 27 © CERN: (br). 28–29 **Science Photo Library**: Cern, P. Loez. 30 **Dreamstime.com**: Michael Thompson (cr). 31 **Dreamstime.com**: MinervaStudio (tr); Leon Rafael (cla). 32 **Alamy Images**: sciencephotos (bl). 33 **Dreamstime.com**: Dngood (b); Michal Janošek (tr). 34 **Corbis**: Paul Hardy. 35 **Dreamstime.com**: Jovani Carlo Gorospe (br). 36 **Dreamstime.com**: Vladimir Mucibabic (cl). 37 **Dreamstime.com**: Natalia Bratslavsky (bl); Serban Enache (tl). 39 **SuperStock**: Stock Connection (bl). 40 **Dreamstime.com**. 41 **Alamy Images**: Liam Grant Photography (br). 42–43 **Corbis**: Tim Clayton. 44 **Dreamstime.com**: Onimaru55 (bl). **Getty Images**: Boston Globe (cr). 47 **Dreamstime.com**: William Attard McCarthy (tr). **Getty Images**: Diane Collins and Jordan Hollender / Photodisc (bl). 48 **Alamy Images**: David Wall. 49 **Dreamstime.com**: Yalcinsonat (cb). 50 **Dreamstime.com**: Serdar Tibet (cl). 51 **Dreamstime.com**: Redbaron (bl). **Getty Images**: Jeffrey Coolidge / Iconica (tr). 52 **Dreamstime.com**: Anna Cegliska (ca). **Getty Images**: allanbarredo / Flickr (b). 53 **Dreamstime.com**: Norman Chan (cra); Yao Zhenyu (cla); Oxfordsquare (br). 55 **NASA**: ESA / NASA / SOHO (cra). **Science Photo Library**: US Department of Energy (bl). 56 **Dreamstime.com**: Juemic (tl). 57 **Dreamstime.com**: Chris Hamilton (br). **Getty Images**: Image Source (l). 59 **Dreamstime.com**: Yuri Shirokov (br). 60–61 **Corbis**: NASA. 64 **Corbis**: Imaginechina (bl). 65 **Dreamstime.com**: Mikhail Kokhanchikov (tr). **NASA**: (b). 67 **Science Photo Library**: David R. Frazier (b). 68 **Dreamstime.com**: Elmur (br); Carla F. Castagno (cra). 69 **Dreamstime**.

com: Starblue (tl). **Getty Images**: Cornstock Images (bc); SMC Images / Photodisc (cra). **NASA**: (br). 70–71 **NASA**. 72 **Getty Images**: Will Salter / Lonely Planet Images (b). 73 **Dreamstime.com**: Arne9001 (bl); Olga Popova (crb). **NASA**: (tr). 75 **Dreamstime.com**: Elwynn (b). **Getty Images**: PhotoPlus Magazine / Future (tr). 77 **Corbis**: Visuals Unlimited (cra). **Dreamstime.com**: Weiphotos (tl). **Getty Images**: Mark Kostich / Vetta (br). 78 **Corbis**: Scientifica / Visuals Unlimited (bl). **Dreamstime.com**: Allazotova (cr). 79 **Dreamstime.com**: Evgenyatamanenko (bl). **Fotolia**: Marek (cr). 80 **Dreamstime.com**: Joyfuldesigns (tr); Bob Phillips (cr). 81 **Dreamstime.com**: Andrey Vergees (r). 83 **Dreamstime.com**: Frenc (tr); Refocus (b). 84 **NASA**: Scott Andrews / Canon (l). 85 **Corbis**: Peter Turnley (tl). 86 **Corbis**: Martin Philbey (b). 86–87 **Corbis**: Philip Wallick (tr). 88 **NASA**: (l). 88–89 **Dreamstime.com**: Terencefoto (b). 89 **Dreamstime.com**: Ivan Cholakov (br); Nivi (tr). 90–91 **Getty Images**: Willoughby Owen / Flickr. 92 **Dreamstime.com**: Jaroslav Grudzinski (cr); Jiri Hamhalter (br). 93 **Dreamstime.com**: Falun1 (c). 94 **Dreamstime.com**: Leloft1911 (cr); Serg_velusceac (tr). 95 **Corbis**: Glowimages (l). **Dreamstime.com**. 96 **Science Photo Library**: Maximilian Stock Ltd. 97 **Dreamstime.com**: Uatp1 (br). 98 **Corbis**: Bettmann (cl). **Dreamstime.com**: Leung Cho Pan (cb). 98–99 **Getty Images**: AFP / Stringer (b). 99 **Dreamstime.com**: Paul Hakimata (tr). 100 **Dreamstime.com**: Tommy Schultz. 101 **Corbis**: Dr. Thomas Deerlinck / Visuals Unlimited (cb). 102 **Dreamstime.com**: 72he71c1s (bl); Andrey Sukhachev (br). 103 **Alamy Images**: Digital Archive Japan (b). **Corbis**: Micro Discovery (tl). **Dreamstime.com**: Saša Prudkov (r). 104 **Dreamstime.com**: Ruud Morijn (cr). 106 **Getty Images**: Wim van Egmond / Visuals Unlimited, Inc (cl). 106–107 **Dreamstime.com**: Monkey Business Images (b). 107 **Dreamstime.com**: Evgeny Karandaev (tr). 108 **Dreamstime.com**. 108–109 **Dreamstime.com**: Alain Lacroix (b). 109 **Dreamstime.com**: Martin Green (bc). 110 **Dreamstime.com**: Chuyu (l). 111 **Dreamstime.com**: Hupeng (cr); Pettifre (tl). 112–113 **Corbis**: Steven Vidler / Eurasia Press. 115 **Dreamstime.com**: Yaroslav Osadchyy (r). 116 **Dorling Kindersley**: Lucy Claxton (br). 117 **Dreamstime.com**: Alex Bramwell (cl); Richard Griffin (br). 118 **Dreamstime.com**: John Casey. 119 **Dreamstime.com**: Marietje Opperman (ca); Dariusz Szwangruber (cl); Nancy Tripp (br). 120–121 **SuperStock**: Juniors. 122 **Dreamstime.com**: Tdargon (cr). 123 **Dreamstime.com**: Sc0l22 (br). 124 **Corbis**: Stephen Dalton / Minden Pictures (bl). 125 **Corbis**: Fotofeeling / Westend61 (b). **Dreamstime.com**: Steveheap (tl). 126 **Dreamstime.com**: Spaceheater (c); Sergey Uryadnikov (clb). 126–127 **Dreamstime.com**: Michael Sheehan (c). 127 **Corbis**: Wim van Egmond / Visuals Unlimited (b). **Dreamstime.com**: Dekanaryas (c); Sergey Uryadnikov (tc). 128 **Dreamstime.com**: Llikar (b). 129 **Dreamstime.com**: Saskia Massink (br); Orlando Florin Rosu (c). 130 **Dreamstime.com**: Most66 (cl); Nico Smit (c). 131 **Corbis**: Serguei Fomine / Global

Look (tc). **Dreamstime.com**: Anton Foltin (br); Kmitu (clb); Irabel8 (bc); Hiroshi Tanaka (tr). 132–133 **Getty Images**: Jeff Hunter / Photographer's Choice. 134 **Dreamstime.com**: Jamiegodson. 135 **Alamy Images**: Tom Uhlman (bl). **Corbis**: Science Picture Co / Science Faction (tl). **Dreamstime.com**: Dejan Sarman (tr). 136 **Dreamstime.com**: Dongfan Wang (c). 137 **Corbis**: Birgitte Wilms / Minden Pictures (cla). **Dreamstime.com**: Serena Livingston (tr). 138 **Corbis**: Michael Durham / Minden Pictures (cla). 138–139 **Dreamstime.com**: Gordon Miller (c). 139 **Corbis**: Joe McDonald (br). **Dorling Kindersley**: Booth Museum of Natural History, Brighton (c). 140 **Dreamstime.com**: Davepmorgan (l); Vladimir Seliverstov (br). 141 **Dorling Kindersley**: American Museum of Natural History (b). **Getty Images**: De Agostini (tl). 142–143 **Dreamstime.com**: Pklimenko (b). 143 **Corbis**: Jeffrey L. Rotman (br). **Dreamstime.com**: Meryl (tl).

Jacket images: *Front*: **Getty Images**: Oliver Cleve (c); *Spine*: **Getty Images**: Oliver Cleve (c).

All other images © Dorling Kindersley

For further information see:
www.dkimages.com